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THE PROFESSIONAL SATISFACTION OF BEGINNING TEACHERS

by

©

MALCOLM THOMAS HEWITSON

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The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled THE PROFESSIONAL SATISFACTION OF BEGINNING TEACHERS submitted by Malcolm T. Hewitson in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

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ABSTRACT

This study addressed itself to the Professional Satisfaction of Beginning Teachers. Professional Satisfaction is conceptualized as the state of satisfaction which results from gratification of the need of or want for professional autonomy. Thus it is conceptualized as one element of, but distinct from, Career Satisfaction.

The study was based on questionnaire data provided by 71 principals and 213 beginning teachers of the eight school jurisdictions which encircle the city of Edmonton. Beginning teachers were defined as classroom teachers in their first or second year of service in January, 1975.

The main purpose of the study was to investigate relationships which exist between beginning teacher decision making involvement, Professional Satisfaction, and Career Satisfaction; and between beginning teacher supervision experience, Professional Satisfaction, and Career Satisfaction. In addition, Rapport with the Principal was viewed as a variable in its own right and as an intervening variable.

The Professional Satisfaction Index (PSI) and PSI scale were introduced to enable respondents to be given a Professional Satisfaction score on each of the five decision areas. A similar scale was applied to responses to the five supervision categories.

Regarding decision making, the findings show that high levels of decision making involvement were significantly associated with Professional Satisfaction (resulting from gratification of the want for decision making involvement). Decision making involvement, per se, did

not contribute to the Career Satisfaction of beginning teachers as substantively as the literature suggests. However, high levels of decision making involvement were associated with high Rapport with the Principal, which, in turn, was associated with high levels of Career Satisfaction.

Regarding supervision, the concept of Professional Satisfaction (resulting from gratification of the want for independence from undesired supervision) proved to be inapplicable in this study. However, the findings are valid, and show that, among beginning teachers satisfied with their supervision experience, high levels of Career Satisfaction were associated in the two factors, Face-to-Face Discussion and Collegial Professionalization, with both frequent supervision experience and high Rapport with the Principal. Among dissatisfied beginning teachers, low levels of Career Satisfaction were associated in the factors, Promotion of Professional Development and Development of Teaching Competence by Example, with infrequency of supervision experience. Here, high levels of Rapport with the Principal appeared to compensate in terms of Career Satisfaction for a perceived lack of supervision.

For both decision making and supervision, respondents who expressed a preference for less decision making involvement or less frequent supervision constituted a negligible number.

Rapport with the Principal was shown to be pervasively associated with Career Satisfaction. Whenever the beginning teachers were categorized on the basis of their Rapport scores, in all five decision areas and in all five supervision categories, in every finding of significant difference and in every finding of no significant difference except one, the mean Career Satisfaction score of the high Rapport group was numerically greater than that of the low Rapport group. Both the statistical evidence and respondents' comments suggested that the satisfaction of respondents was preeminently associated with the success of the principal as a builder and maintainer of rapport.

Finally, two variables in particular, the number of years the principal has been a principal and the grade level of the beginning teacher's classes, were found to be significantly related to a number of decision making and supervision factors.

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CHAPTER I

I. INTRODUCTION

This study is based on two fundamental assumptions. The first is that it is desirable to foster a high level of satisfaction in neophyte teachers. Research in North America demonstrates that relatively high rates of attrition occur in the teaching profession within the four or five years following first appointment to a teaching position (Charters, 1967:193f.; MacDonald, 1970:5; Bush, 1970:125; Pedersen, 1973:121; Francoeur, 1963:44; McGillivray, 1966:3; Milne, 1968:2; Sullivan, 1971:20). This may be so even when the normal life cycle effects of young female teachers are taken into account (Sullivan, 1971: 44, 104). It is also alleged that often the best teachers drop out most rapidly (Bush, 1970:112; Charters, 1967:187; Braga, 1972:56). The economic implications of such a situation are evident: not only are there financial and resource costs involved in the training of prospective teachers, but also opportunity costs are involved in the preparation of future dropout teachers in place of others who may have found teaching a very satisfying and life-long career.

There are, of course, many factors contributing to the overall satisfaction which teachers may experience with teaching as a career. Thus one set of factors may well involve satisfaction with one's performance of "the most characteristic professional act" (Bucher and Strauss, 1966:188), i.e., teacher interaction with learners. Another set of factors may be enumerated in terms of satisfaction with one's relationships with superordinates, colleagues and significant others in the community within which the school functions. Other factors again may include satisfaction with such extrinsic rewards as salary, the respect or esteem enjoyed, and the chances of using one's influence in the work situation (Lortie, 1969:32). Clearly satisfaction with the work itself, the work environment, the availability of facilities and ancillary services, the work load and salary levels, community support, and so on may all influence the career satisfaction of teachers.

Of the multitude of such contributory factors, there are two dimensions of career satisfaction which it is both topical and fruitful to identify. The first is the felt satisfaction of teachers with their influence on decisions concerning their work and work environment; and the second is the felt satisfaction of teachers with the supervisory practices which they experience. It will be shown in subsequent chapters that decision making involvement and supervision are central to the concept of the professional autonomy of teachers, in that they are interrelated dimensions of control over professional work. Since teachers generally appear to be seeking a greater measure of professional autonomy than they presently enjoy, it is argued that gratification of their need of, or want for, greater autonomy will lead to greater satisfaction. For the purposes of this study, the satisfaction experienced by teachers with their decision making involvement and with their independence from undesired supervision is defined as professional satisfaction. In other words, professional satisfaction results from gratification of professional autonomy needs or wants, and may contribute importantly to career satisfaction.

Admittedly factors other than professional satisfaction or lack of it may influence a teacher's decision to continue to teach or to quit the profession -- such factors, for example, as the personal investment of money and time already made in specialized training, the general level of unemployment and/or comparative wage rates in alternative occupations, geographical influences, etc. But the logical fact remains that the more satisfied a teacher feels with his job, the less likely he is to leave the teaching profession. Hence the first assumption underlying this study appears to be a reasonable one.

The second fundamental assumption which is necessary to justify the present research is that teachers will continue to work, at least in the foreseeable future, in formal school organizations which are more or less bureaucratic in structure and process. The implication here is that it is worthwhile to undertake an investigation which may lead to a greater understanding of the relationship between educational administrators and the beginning teachers whose professional satisfaction may in no small measure be related to administrative decision making and supervisory practices.

II. THE PROBLEM

This study addresses itself to the problem of beginning teacher satisfaction. The question raised is: when neophytes go out into the schools as qualified teachers, what decision making responsibilities and supervisory practices are associated with their satisfaction on and with the job?

In order to answer this question, a number of areas of decision making responsibility are identified and the involvement of beginning teachers in the decision process in each area is established. Hence the first sub-problem is:

(1) In what way is involvement in decision making related to the satisfaction of beginning teachers?

It is also necessary to delineate those supervisory practices which may affect beginning teacher satisfaction. The second sub-problem may then be stated as follows:

(2) In what way is frequency of supervision experience related to the satisfaction of beginning teachers?

In addition to the above, however, the quality of the relationships between the administrator and the beginning teacher is likely to affect beginning teacher satisfaction. In other words, it is not simply what an administrator does but the way that he does it that may be a crucial factor. For example, an administrator who succeeds in establishing an atmosphere of trust at the interpersonal level may influence beginning teacher satisfaction at least as much as either teacher involvement in particular decision areas or teacher experience of particular supervisory practices. Therefore, a third sub-problem needs to be investigated, namely:

3. What influence does the rapport which beginning teachers feel with the administration have on their satisfaction?

Although no assumption is made that high levels of beginning teacher satisfaction lead to high levels of professional commitment to a career of teaching, Butler (1961:13) points to the direct positive relationship between job satisfaction and the retention of beginning teachers in the teaching profession. It is worth noting, too, that Wutzl (1972) has shown that teacher attitudes of professionalism are positively correlated with teacher satisfaction.

III. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The present study was prompted by the frequency with which the school administration and supervisory practices are held responsible for teacher satisfaction or lack of it by writers and researchers who contribute to the literature.

However, it differs in a number of important ways from many earlier investigations in the areas of teacher satisfaction and morale. In the first place, it focuses on a narrow segment of the population of teachers, namely, beginning teachers. This is because the first year or two of teaching appear to be especially significant in the restructuring and/or reinforcing processes that take place in respect of the beginner's ideal concept of himself as a professional teacher when he is appointed to his first teaching position. It is a time when the prospective teacher is uniquely ready to develop or change in the direction of the organization's expectations (Berlew and Hall, 1971:26; Kolb et al., 1971:8). In Schein's (1971:3) terms, he is unfrozen, and perhaps more open to professional socialization processes than at any other time in his career. Clearly the influences of administrative demands translated through the decision making structure operating at the school and the influences of supervisory practices actually employed by the administration may be either positive or negative in terms of their present and future effect on beginning teachers' satisfaction. It is of practical importance to administrators that positive influences be identified and expanded and that negative influences be minimized or discarded.

Of great significance for educational administrators is the potential for conflict which appears to exist between bureaucratically structured authority on the one hand and professional autonomy on the other. Administrators hold higher rank in the hierarchical structure than the beginning teachers whose professional competence and satisfaction, ideally, they would wish to foster. In addition, pragmatic administrators would wish to avoid high rates of turnover among the teachers working under them. The effectiveness of administrators in fostering what might loosely be called commitment among beginning teachers is necessarily tempered by their perceptions of those teachers, and by a natural inclination to stand by known, and perhaps traditional, ways of doing things. However, the nature of the society of which beginning teachers are in part a product is undergoing rapid change in terms of attitudes, values, and both formal and informal relationships. There is, for example, much more basic social security provided by governments than was the case ten years ago. Hence job security may be of less importance to today's beginning teachers. Again, society has become more materialistic in orientation, so that teaching positions may be regarded in a more instrumental light and less as a calling than was the case among earlier generations of beginning teachers. Furthermore, many of today's beginning teachers have experienced four years of undergraduate university life and successfully completed four years of professional-level university education. In Alberta, four years of teacher education has been a legal certification requirement for students entering a Faculty of Education as from September, 1973. It is timely, therefore, to investigate the on-going problems which are the subject of this research: to review where the locus of decision making responsibility lies and what supervisory practices are in vogue, and with what consequences in terms of beginning teacher satisfaction, both their professional satisfaction and their satisfaction with teaching as a career.

IV. DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study was confined to principals and beginning teachers in the eight school jurisdictions which encircle the city of Edmonton, Alberta. The beginning teachers were full-time classroom teachers, in their first or second year of teaching in January, 1975. Kindergarten, remedial and resource teachers, librarians and counsellors were excluded from the study, since their patterns of school involvement are not necessarily normative in terms of the involvement patterns of classroom teachers of grades 1 to 12.

Of all the possible influences affecting teacher perceptions, attitudes and feelings, a few were selected as pertinent for the purposes of this study. These are the nominal data items on Page 1 of the Teachers' and Principals' Questionnaires (Appendix A).

V. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The main limitations of the study lay in the fact that questionnaires were used to gather the data. Problems inherent in this method of data collection concern the reliability and validity of the instruments (discussed in Chapter IV), and the assumption that responses faithfully reflect the real perceptions and feelings of respondents.

The conclusions reached are limited by the nature of the sample of beginning teachers investigated, this sample being time-bound and place-bound. Such grounds as may exist for generalizing any conclusions beyond the sample are discussed in Chapter IV.

VI. DEFINITIONS OF TERMS

The following definitions are adopted for the purposes of this study:

Satisfaction: the quality or state of being satisfied and contented, resulting from gratification of a need or want.

Esteem needs: the needs of self-esteem and the need for esteem accorded by others -- competence, prestige and recognition needs.

Autonomy needs: the need for recognition of one's competence to make independent, rational decisions.

Professional autonomy: the amount of freedom and responsibility required for making decisions which determine the direction, performance or evaluation of professional work; independence from non-professional control.

Professional satisfaction: the state of satisfaction resulting from gratification of the need of or want for professional autonomy. More specifically, Professional Satisfaction is the state of satisfaction resulting from gratification of the need of or want for

(1) participation in decision making; and/or
(2) independence from undesired supervision.

Career satisfaction (teaching): the overall satisfaction which teachers feel with teaching as a career.

Beginning teachers: those classroom teachers who are new to teaching and who are in their first or second year of service in the public elementary and secondary schools.

Further definitions of terms appear as they become warranted in the course of the text of this report.

VII. OUTLINE OF THE STUDY

Chapter I introduces the central problem to which this study is addressed and indicates the significance of the problem for educational administrators. A number of significant terms are defined for the purposes of the study. The delimitations and limitations of the study are stated.

Chapter II contains a review of the literature upon which the conceptual framework is founded. The chapter provides an overview of a number of approaches to the problem of employee satisfaction, examines the situational context in which teacher employees find themselves, and finally focuses on the plight of the beginning teacher as he seeks satisfaction of needs and/or wants. The chapter forms the general background of the study.

Chapter III reviews the literature pertaining to the two interrelated dimensions of professional autonomy, decision making involvement and supervision experience. Here the central issue is seen to be that of control of the teacher's work and work environment. Relevant Canadian research is cited to show that certain decision making areas and supervisory practices are likely of particular relevance and immediate moment to beginning teachers. The principal emerges as the key figure in determining the decision making involvement actually enjoyed by beginning teachers and the supervisory practices actually experienced by beginning teachers.

Chapters II and III thus identify those decision areas and supervisory practices which are included in the questionnaires to principals and beginning teachers (Appendix A). They also provide the bases of the research framework and statement of hypotheses with which Chapter III concludes.

Chapter IV is concerned with the Instrumentation and Methodology of the research. The Pilot Study, which may be viewed as a means of testing both instruments and method, is reported in Appendix B.

Chapters V and VI report the analyses of the research data, while Chapter VII contains a summary of the study, conclusions drawn by the researcher, and implications for future practice and investigation.

VIII. SUMMARY OF CHAPTER I

Chapter I introduces the problem to which this research report is addressed. Two fundamental assumptions are explicitly stated, and it is argued that both are justified.

The broad issues involved and the significance of the study permeate the opening sections of the chapter. The delimitations and limitations of the study are then stated. A number of key terms are defined, and the chapter concludes with a brief outline of the report which follows.

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CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE, PART I

I. INTRODUCTION

The review of the literature is in two parts. This Chapter begins with an overview of a number of approaches to the satisfaction of employees working in organizations. The conceptual framework of the present study is then presented, in further support of which the situational context in which teachers find themselves is examined: in particular, the essential nature of the conflict which teachers, as professionals, may experience with educational administrators as bureaucrats. Central to the discussion is the concept of professional autonomy. Finally, the focus of the Chapter narrows to the plight of the beginning teacher as he seeks gratification of esteem and autonomy needs.

This Chapter thus provides the general background to the study. Part II of the literature review is sequential. What emerges from Part I is that the professional satisfaction of beginning teachers appears to depend on two critical aspects of professional autonomy: firstly, their involvement in decisions which directly affect them, and thus their satisfaction, on and with the job; and secondly, the supervisory practices of administrators who have the hierarchical power to thwart their needs for esteem and autonomy. Part II, therefore, examines in depth the issue of control as it pertains to participative decision making and the supervisory practices of administrators.

II. ANALYTICAL OVERVIEW OF APPROACHES TO EMPLOYEE SATISFACTION FOUND IN THE LITERATURE

This section reviews some of the major approaches to the nature of satisfaction and ways of achieving it among members of an organization which are found in the literature over the last two decades. An attempt is made to demonstrate the centrality of employee participation in decision making and of supervisory behaviors of superordinates in the achievement of employee satisfaction.

March and Simon (1958:94) propose that the primary factor influencing an employee to leave an organization is the employee's perceived satisfaction with the job:

> The greater the individual's satisfaction with the job, the less the perceived desirability of movement.

According to March and Simon, one of the main sources of satisfaction lies in the conformity of the job to the employee's self-image. The self-image, in turn, depends upon estimates of one's worth, one's independence, and one's competence. One's worth may be estimated in terms of tangible rewards, such as income and perquisites, as well as in terms of less tangible benefits such as status or prestige. One's independence may be estimated in such terms as one's independence from supervisory practices (March and Simon, 1958:95), one's perceived power to influence the organization (Schein, 1970:15), or one's ability to resist organizational expectations or sanctions perceived as illegitimate (Gross et al., 1958:284; Katz and Kahn, 1966:178). Hence participation in decisions regarding one's job assignment may be of particular importance in estimating one's independence (March and Simon, 1958:95). Thirdly, one's competence may be estimated from the level of specialized education attained. Note, however, that one's professional orientation and aspirations likely permeate all three aspects of the self-image identified by March and Simon.

Clearly the felt desirability of leaving an organization does not automatically mean that an employee will leave. As March and Simon (1958:100) point out, this decision is subject to the perceived ease of movement from the organization which is determined by the perceived number and nature of alternative jobs available. One of the alternatives an employee may opt for is intraorganizational transfer. In teaching, for example, Willower (1969:121) suggests that changing schools or seeking a different position within the education system, such as in pupil services or counselling, may offer a solution for the disillusioned classroom teacher.

The two other main sources of employee satisfaction expounded by March and Simon are based upon the predictability of job relationships and the compatibility of the work-role with other roles. These propositions tie in well with Schein's (1970) notion of a psychological contract which is made between employee and management when a position with the organization is accepted. The basis of the psychological contract from the employee's side is his assumption about the nature of the organization and his expectation for it to behave in certain ways toward him (Schein, 1970:51). If the organization's authority system is perceived as legitimate, the employee delegates power to influence his behavior to those in higher authority and he complies with their demands. But if the organization fails to meet his expectations, then unless the organization can coerce him to remain as a member, he will most likely leave (Schein, 1970:13; 15).

From the manager's point of view, it is the kinds of expectations that he has about people that make up his side of the psychological contract. According to Schein (1970:50), the most important factor in successful organizational management is the fit between management's assumptions about people and the actual characteristics of the organization members. With this thought, Schein summarizes some of the most influential thinking that has shaped the discursive and research literature on the nature of human satisfaction and ways of achieving it among workers on the job during the last two decades.

Though founded on common sense rather than empirical grounds (Hellriegel and Slocum, 1974:307) Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of prepotent needs has enjoyed wide acceptance among education theorists. The theory posits that unsatisfied needs act as motivators of human behavior and that the highest levels of satisfaction derive from satisfaction of the need for self-fulfilment or self-actualization. Before such satisfaction can be experienced, however, the lower prepotent needs must be gratified.

Figure 1 reproduces Porter's modification of Maslow's hierarchy.

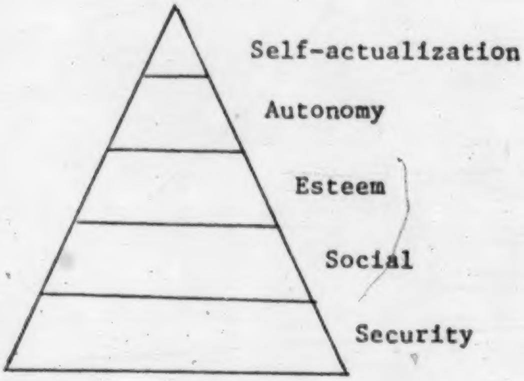

Figure 1. The Hierarchy of Needs (From Sergiovanni and Starratt, 1971:135)

Porter's revision is particularly relevant in societies which have largely overcome the problems of gratifying the physiological needs of the population. Furthermore, the inclusion of autonomy as a higher order need is particularly relevant to education (Sergiovanni and Starratt, 1971:134), since it captures the essence of demands for control and self-determination which any growth in the professionalization and professionalism of teachers seems to spawn.

It may be argued, therefore, that if school management accepts that human needs arrange themselves in the hierarchy of prepotency presented in Figure 1, then this conception of man in general or of teachers in particular provides operational guidelines for successful administrative behavior. Take, for example, the esteem needs. Maslow (Vroom and Deci, 1970:32) includes here both self-esteem, based on competence, achievement and respect, and the esteem of others, based on such factors as reputation or prestige, recognition and appreciation. Satisfaction of the esteem needs patently lies within management's power to no small extent. Thwarting of them, which is also possible on the part of management, produces feelings of inferiority and discouragement.

It is perhaps not surprising to find that the hierarchy of needs theory has been acclaimed as a basis for enlightened supervisory behavior, including providing teachers with opportunities to make independent educational decisions and to develop personally and professionally (Sergiovanni and Starratt, 1971:131; 143). For, in other words, greater teacher satisfaction is believed to depend on more professional autonomy being accorded to teachers whose present drives are directed towards satisfaction of the higher levels of need.

On the other hand, Maslow's assumptions regarding a natural and universal hierarchy of prepotent needs have been questioned. Lee (1959:72), for example, argues that needs are culturally derived and that cultural values determine the kind and potency of what are actually created needs. However, if the cultural context of North America, or more specifically, Canada and Alberta, is taken as a given, it only requires to establish what needs appear to be the most prepotent as far as teachers in the given cultural situation are concerned.

Research using the hierarchy of needs framework is reported by Hellriegel and Slocum (1974:308-310). They observe that the need hierarchy may differ according to organizational level, cultural background, race and sex. Thus Maslow's theory has generated some controversy. However, there is an abundance of evidence to be presented in the course of the present literature review supporting the notion that teachers, in their specific situational context, have their sights set on gratification of the esteem and autonomy needs. Nor does this notion imply absolute gratification of lower levels of need, but only that the lower needs have been satisfied to an extent which allows the esteem and autonomy needs to dominate.

A second and somewhat comparable approach to the satisfaction of human needs is proposed by Argyris (1957). In formulating his theory of personality and organization, Argyris delineates the infancy dimensions of behavior which are seen to be required by an organization of its members and contrasts them with the adulthood dimensions which constitute natural growth outcomes and aspirations for the vast majority of people. The seven developmental continua originally proposed are refined in the following manner (Argyris, 1973:142):

Infants begin as		Adults strive toward
(1) being dependent and submissive to parents (or other significant adult)	→	(1) relative independence, autonomy, relative control over their immediate world
(2) having few abilities	→	(2) developing many abilities
(3) having skin-surfaced or shallow abilities	→	(3) developing a few abilities in depth
(4) having a short time perspective	→	(4) developing a longer time perspective

As Argyris (1973:141) comments:

> This means that the individual seeks to fulfill these predispositions, yet their exact nature, potency and degree to which they have to be fulfilled are influenced by the organizational context . . .

Hence ignoring or suppressing the developmental logic represented in the infancy-adulthood continua may lead to employee frustration, hostility or leaving the organization altogether (Argyris, 1957:78).

As with the Maslow theory, it is obvious that management's attitudes and administrative behaviors may strongly influence, for better or worse, the outcome of conflict which typically exists between the adulthood needs of mature individuals and the organization's demands for infancy dimension behaviors. There is considerable evidence that in teaching, for example, the administrative hierarchy encourages teachers to be high on dependence, submissiveness and deference to authority, and fails to reward creative or autonomous behavior. Sergiovanni and Carver (1973:29; 44) note the need for changes to occur in this regard in view of the "new breed" of teacher now entering the profession.

In support of his general view, Argyris cites Carpenter's (1971) study concerning the job satisfaction of classroom teachers. It is particularly relevant here in that it lends support to Sergiovanni and Starratt's comments reported earlier in reference to Maslow's theory. For Carpenter found that the greater their autonomy and opportunity to use professional authority, the higher the satisfaction of classroom teachers (Argyris, 1973:148).

Argyris' theory of personality and organization and McGregor's (1960) philosophical stance on management and supervision as outlined in the assumptions which undergird Theory Y appear to be fully consistent with each other. For example, in the area of human behavior Theory Y relies heavily on self-control and self-direction rather than on controls imposed externally (McGregor, 1960:19). McGregor's position appears to correspond with the adulthood dimension -- relative independence, autonomy, and relative control over their immediate world — which Argyris (1973:142) identifies.

Furthermore, neither Argyris nor McGregor seem to be at odds with Likert's (1967) System 4 management system. Though Likert's emphasis is on the work group rather than the individual, and therefore on group goals, motivations and satisfactions, Theory Y assumptions and self-control methods are fundamental to System 4 principles (Sergiovanni and Starratt, 1971:124). Thus under System 4 management, decision making is characterized by the full involvement of subordinates in all decisions related to their work. Confidence and trust characterize the interaction-influence processes, and relatively high satisfaction is experienced with regard to membership in the organization, supervision and individual achievement (Sergiovanni and Starratt, 1971:118; 114; 111).

A third approach to the nature of satisfaction and ways of achieving it among organization members is based on Herzberg's motivation-hygiene hypothesis (Herzberg et al., 1959). Using the critical incident technique, Herzberg and his associates found support for the hypothesis that certain factors associated with the work itself lead to job satisfaction when they are present, but not to dissatisfaction when absent, and that other factors (associated with conditions of work) are dissatisfiers when present, but do not lead to satisfaction when absent. In other words, satisfaction factors and dissatisfaction factors are mutually exclusive.

Sergiovanni (1967:68) notes that Herzberg's empirical findings appear consistent with Maslow's hierarchy of prepotent needs. Herzberg identifies Achievement, Recognition, Work itself, Responsibility and Advancement as satisfaction needs, but for them to become motivators of behavior, reasonable satiation of the "dissatisfiers" or "hygienic" needs must first be achieved. Some examples of hygienic needs found by Herzberg to be important in the environment of work are Policy and administration, Quality of supervision, Salary, Relationships with subordinates, superordinates and peers, and Working conditions. Thus a rough comparison may be drawn between the Maslow-Porter higher order needs of Esteem, Autonomy and Self-actualization and Herzberg's satisfiers, as well as between Maslow's Physiological, Security, Social and Esteem needs and Herzberg's hygienes (Dowling and Sayles, 1971:8; Davis, 1972:59).

Herzberg's theory has been widely tested. Dowling and Sayles (1971:8) assert verification of the theory in over fifty repetitions, though Sergiovanni and Starratt (1971:143f) suggest it is still a highly controversial hypothesis. For example, in a recent study reported by Wickstrom (1973), the four top-ranking satisfiers reported by 373 Saskatoon teachers were a sense of achievement, the work itself, good interpersonal relations with subordinates, and responsibility. The main dissatisfiers were lack of achievement and poor school policy and administration. Hence, contrary to Sergiovanni's (1967) findings, which generally supported Herzberg's hypothesis, Wickstrom's study lends only partial support to it.

Despite the controversy as to whether certain work factors are mutually exclusive satisfiers and dissatisfiers, or whether they can be placed on satisfaction-dissatisfaction continua, the variables identified by Herzberg as sources of satisfaction or dissatisfaction appear to enjoy almost universal acceptance. Achievement and Responsibility are accepted as highly important first-level factors associated with satisfaction, while Policy and administration and Supervision are prominently associated with dissatisfaction. If Responsibility may be taken to mean that workers enjoy relative independence and autonomy, and relative control over their immediate work situation, as Herzberg et al. (1959:47) imply in their definition of the term, then the link with Argyris' adulthood dimension is forged.

In fact, Herzberg, Argyris and Maslow may all be validly construed as showing that a high level of employee satisfaction is a function of the gratification of the psychological or inner needs of man in the work situation. The work situation, however, may itself be an important variable. Hence the final theory of human behavior to be included in this overview of approaches to the nature of satisfaction and ways of achieving it in organizations treats this variable very specifically.

The reference here is to the Getzels-Guba (1957) model of social behavior, which has provoked a stream of hypotheses and research studies investigating the theory that satisfaction is a function of the congruence of role and personality, the former comprising the institutional expectations and the latter, the individual need-dispositions. The numerous investigations spawned by the model include studies on perceptual differences which cause different institutional member-groups to either expect or experience different, often conflicting, roles of the same organizational office holder. Also included are differences between perceived and ideal behaviors of role incumbents.

In an early summary of role analysis, Charters refers to "the seemingly endless comparisons and cross-comparisons" resulting from the application of role theory to educational research. He further comments:

> . . . the line of reasoning common in the educational literature focuses on the congruity or disparity among personality needs, perceptions of behavior, desires for (or expectations of) behavior, attributions of expectations, and the like. Congruity is seen to lead to a tensionless state of harmony and satisfaction; disparity is said to create tension and dissatisfaction (Gage, 1963:798).

In view of the vast scope for potential lack of congruences to occur, it would seem that one obvious solution to problems of reducing disparity and increasing congruence, and thus satisfaction, is for dialogue and joint decision making to take place among the various role incumbents. This may ensure clarification of roles from the organization's point of view and accurate perceptions of role requirements from the employee's. If participative decisions can be reached whereby the appropriateness of expectations is agreed upon, then the three important dimensions of the employee's perceived role have been met -- role accuracy, role clarity and role consensus -- all of which are associated with high satisfaction (Greene and Organ, 1973:96). In addition, mutually satisfactory arrangements may be reached jointly concerning the manner and content of supervision, an essential facet of work in an organization, but one which may lead to high dissatisfaction.

III. THE CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Table 1 summarizes by author the approaches to the nature of employee satisfaction just considered in Section II.

While it is evident that Table 1 emphasizes the conditions for growth of employee satisfaction, it is also possible to interpret it from a negative point of view. In other words, employees will lack satisfaction or experience dissatisfaction if the job does not conform to the self-image (March and Simon) or the psychological contract (Schein), if it does not gratify dominant needs (Maslow) or allow for growth in adulthood dimensions (Argyris), if it does not provide intrinsic motivators (Herzberg), or if there is role conflict (Getzels).

TABLE 1

THE NATURE OF EMPLOYEE SATISFACTION ACCORDING TO AUTHOR

AUTHOR	EMPLOYEE SATISFACTION IS A FUNCTION OF . . .
March and Simon	. . . conformity of the job to the self-image, on the job relationships and compatibility of the job with other roles
Schein	. . . accurate assessment and fulfilment of the expected terms of the psychological contract
Maslow	. . . gratification of man's dominant inner needs
Argyris	. . . compatibility of growth in adulthood dimensions and the organization's demands
Herzberg	. . . intrinsic motivators and environmental hygienes
Getzels	. . . congruence between organizational role-expectations and individual need-dispositions

Employee reactions to the nonsatisfaction of needs are demonstrated in summary form in Figure 2. Based upon Kolasa's paradigm, Hellriegel and Slocum (1974:311) offer the following conceptualization:

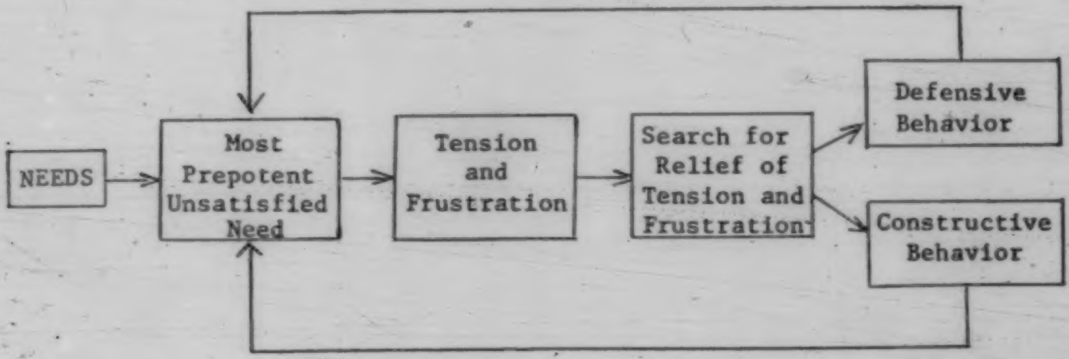
NEEDS
Most Prepotent Unsatisfied Need
Tension and Frustration
Search for Relief of Tension and Frustration
Defensive Behavior
Constructive Behavior

Figure 2. Reactions to Nonsatisfaction of Needs (Adapted from Hellriegel and Slocum, 1974:311)

Figure 2 is self explanatory. In order to particularize this conceptualization to the teaching profession, Figure 3 is presented below. Derived from the theoretical background outlined in this Chapter and the following one, Figure 3 is a graphic representation of the conceptual framework of the present research study.

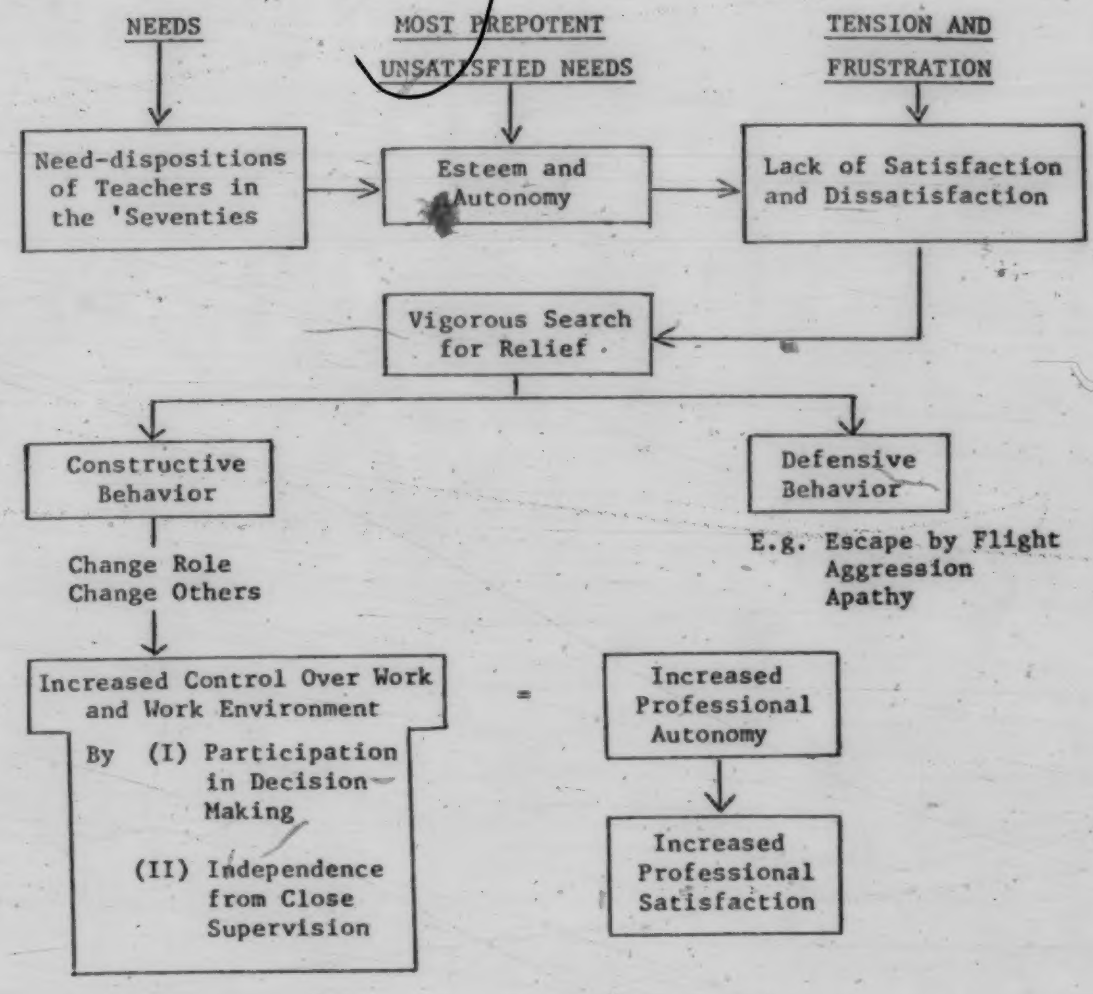
THE CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK
NEEDS
MOST PREPOTENT UNSATISFIED NEEDS
TENSION AND FRUSTRATION
Need-dispositions of Teachers in the 'Seventies
Esteem and Autonomy
Lack of Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction
Vigorous Search for Relief
Constructive Behavior
Defensive Behavior
Change Role
Change Others
E.g. Escape by Flight
Aggression
Apathy
Increased Control Over Work and Work Environment
By (I) Participation in Decision Making
(II) Independence from Close Supervision
=
Increased Professional Autonomy
Increased Professional Satisfaction

Figure 3. Reactions of Teachers to Felt Needs for Greater Professional Autonomy

Figure 3 depicts the need-dispositions of teachers in the 'seventies to be such that the esteem and automony needs are the most prepotent unsatisfied needs. If ungratified, lack of satisfaction or dissatisfaction leads to a vigorous search for relief from tension and frustration. Defensive reactions may involve leaving the present teaching position, aggressive behavior, or apathetic attitudes. Constructive behavior, on the other hand, involves changing the role of the teacher and changing the attitudes of significant others. These changes allow teachers to increase the amount of control which they have over their work and their work environment. There are two dimensions to control: a "human approach needs" dimension and a "human avoidance needs" dimension. The former dimension is associated with control over decision making, the latter with control over supervisory practices. Thus to the extent that teachers are successful in increasing their desired freedom and responsibility in decision making and their desired independence from supervision, their need for professional autonomy is gratified and their professional satisfaction increased.

The particular focus of the present study, however, is beginning teacher satisfaction. Hence, it may be objected that, while the most prepotent needs for teachers in general appear to be associated with esteem and autonomy, for beginning teachers in particular, satisfaction may be dependent on gratification of the security and social needs.

Assuming that the beginning teacher of the 'seventies has adequate financial security in the form of salary, then his interest may certainly lie in achieving job security in the form of tenure. Achieving tenure requires evidence of some degree of professional competence. But it is the administration that is responsible for the evaluation of the beginning teacher in respect of tenure. Hence the teacher is vitally affected by the evaluative criteria against which his performance is to be assessed. Given the greater assertiveness and desire for autonomy attributed to the beginning teacher of the 'seventies (Sergiovanni and Carver, 1973:30), it seems reasonable to suppose that he is concerned not only over the content of administrative decisions, but over the manner in which they are reached. It is his professional competence that is at issue. It seems likely that he will want a say in decisions affecting it. In other words, he is concerned with the degree of professional autonomy accorded to him in respect of job security.

The same sort of reasoning may be applied to any decision making that directly and immediately affects the beginning teacher's satisfaction on and with the job. Although it is freely admitted that all levels of needs probably exist to some extent for the individual most of the time (Hellriegel and Slocum, 1974:309), the literature and research reviewed in Chapter III, Section VII, adequately justifies the suggestion that esteem and autonomy needs quickly become the most prepotent unsatisfied needs for the novice practitioner.

Empirical evidence provides support for this position. Trusty and Sergiovanni (Sergiovanni and Starratt, 1971:140), noting the concern of young educators (age 20-24) with esteem needs, report that for both age and sex categories of respondents, esteem, autonomy and self-actualization items account for larger need deficiencies than security and social need levels.

Again, a class of 25 undergraduate Educational Administration students (University of Alberta, 1974) was asked to nominate the degree of importance each attached to security, social, esteem and autonomy needs. Only 12% of these students did not name autonomy and/or esteem needs as being most important. In other words, only three students reported either security or social needs as their most prepotent needs.

It is recognized, of course, that changes in prepotency of needs may occur on the job. The following sections, therefore, examine the whole question of the satisfaction of teachers and identify particular problems confronting the neophyte practitioner of the 'seventies.

IV. THE SATISFACTION OF TEACHERS

Introduction

The purpose of this section is to review the literature which examines teaching as a professional or semi-professional occupation, in so far as it pertains to the satisfaction of teachers. The previous section outlined various approaches to the satisfaction of employees in organizations in general terms. But as Scott (1966:266) points out, professionals participate in two systems, the profession and the organization, which rest on fundamentally different principles of organization, the one set of principles being essentially collegial, the other essentially bureaucratic in nature. Hence the actual or potential conflict which arises between professional authority on the one hand and hierarchical control on the other is an integral element in the situational context confronting teachers in the schools and necessarily affects the level of satisfaction or dissatisfaction which they experience on and with the job.

The discussion focuses on professional autonomy, though not exclusively so. This is because the basic physiological and security needs of teachers have largely been met, at least in the province of Alberta. This is not necessarily so in the case of the esteem needs -- both self esteem and the esteem of others -- since Maslow (Vroom and Deci, 1970:32) includes among them competence, prestige, and recognition.

These attributes may be thought of as characteristic of autonomy needs also. For example, professional competence is the basis of professional authority while prestige and recognition are typically accorded to those who enjoy professional status in the community. Professional autonomy itself is defined as that amount of freedom and responsibility which is required for making decisions which determine the performance, direction or evaluation of professional work.

Corwin (1970:56) summarizes the conflict between what he calls the "irreconcilable" structures of professional and bureaucratic authority now evident in North American school systems. He describes what has emerged as:

> a set of procedures for enforcing compliance awkwardly imposed upon a system that requires autonomy and initiative in order to function. . . . Implicit in the principle of hierarchy is an assumption that teachers are incompetent . . .

With such matters as these, this section of the literature review is concerned.

The Professional Autonomy of Teachers

Selden (1970:71) claims that thousands of young people reject teaching as a career because they are repelled by accurate perceptions of what lies in store for them once they accept a teaching position. After an estimated 10,000 hours in close contact with teachers (Lortie, 1969:10), secondary school graduates no doubt have some criteria against which they can evaluate how well their career aspirations and their image of themselves as practicing teachers match what they perceive a teaching career has to offer.

It seems certain that the North American teacher enjoys only limited professional autonomy if this is defined in terms of the practitioner's right to determine clients' needs. For society fails to recognize the existence of an esoteric knowledge base which, when mastered and applied to the concrete problems of living, would inevitably lead to the professional independence of teachers -- inevitably, so long as lay persons believed that they themselves lacked the expertise necessary for performing, directing or evaluating professional work (Hughes, 1966:66).

In fact, society appears to believe itself competent to pass judgment on the needs of teachers' clients. As Lortie (1969:24) points out, teaching involves the transmission of knowledge, much of which may be already known to a considerable percentage of the adult population. Hence teachers find themselves in competition with others whom MacDonald (1970:27) labels "gifted amateurs." In any case, the core teaching act is almost exclusively restricted to interaction with children, i.e., to interaction with low status clients who, in the main, are compelled to attend school (Leggatt, 1970:170). If, also, teachers have been or are prone to lay special emphasis on the disciplinary and custodial aspects of their work, as Leggatt (1970:170) and MacDonald (1970:9) claim, then it is not surprising that laymen may feel competent to expound at length on matters pertaining to classroom management or treatment of pupils, on curriculum objectives and content, and on the evaluation of pupils by the teacher.

The professional autonomy of teachers is also constrained by the effects of history. Firstly, the control of schools is vested in lay boards of trustees, with certain mandatory and certain discretionary responsibilities and powers. That school boards are in a highly vulnerable and visible position is emphasized by Lortie (1969:5-7), who suggests that trustees therefore employ safety strategies in their relationships with teacher employees. Typical of such strategies are equality of treatment of employees and the use of impersonal formulae in dealings with them. Looked at from another point of view, this means that considerable control is maintained over the teaching profession through administrative structures which may well result in the subordination of professional authority to the demands of bureaucracy (Leggatt, 1970:160).

Secondly, in the formal control system, the position of the superintendent is tenuous (Lortie, 1969:3). On the one hand, he is an employee of the board and subject to its control. On the other, he is the highest ranking professional in the hierarchical structure. On balance, it may be that his role tends to be defined in terms of the demands of administration rather than of professional teacher activities and aspirations.

Thirdly, principals are almost non-existent in legal terms (Lortie, 1969:4). The Alberta principal, for example, is the teacher who must be so designated by the school board (Alberta School Act, 1970: 82(1)). With little say in policy decisions and virtually no financial resources to allocate in accordance with his professional judgment, the principal is nevertheless most strategically placed for day-to-day supervision of teachers (Andrews, 1960:10). In this, however, not only is he called upon to mediate between the administrative needs of the organization and the professional expectations of the teaching staff, but the demands of clients, parent or pupil, form yet a third dimension to his role. Clearly, a principal can only delegate authority to his staff within the parameters of the degree of autonomy he himself enjoys. Equally clearly, his own autonomy may be legitimately restricted by superordinate ranks in the hierarchy.

Another factor, also part of the legacy of history, may deter a principal from according professional autonomy to teachers. Generally speaking, relatively low entrance standards to teacher education institutions, inadequate selection procedures for screening out deviants and/or incompetents, and what Anderson (1962:142) calls "makeshift and jerry-built" training programs for prospective teachers in times of shortage, have likely all contributed to the level of esteem in which teachers are held, not only by the general public, but by teachers' clients and superordinates as well. Hence principals may prefer to place more reliance on their own judgment and less on that of their staff members. In any event, teachers rate only salaried employee status (Lortie, 1969:2; Corwin, 1970:7), and teaching is not a very prestigious occupation: it is not ranked in a high position on the status list of occupations (Reiss, 1970:21).

Research shows, however, that whereas teaching is well below the topmost occupational rank for men, it is a socially desirable and satisfying occupation for American women (Lortie, 1969:20; Leggatt

1970:163). The feminization of the teaching profession has particular consequences for the level of professional autonomy accorded teachers working within a bureaucratic structure. Simpson and Simpson (1969), for example, note that female teachers are concerned with acceptance and warmth rather than with drive toward intellectual mastery. Their orientation is toward humanitarian service, working with and helping people, rather than toward professional autonomy. They are considered to be relatively compliant employees who readily follow directives so long as the bureaucracy does not interfere with the teacher-pupil relationship which they establish (Lortie, 1969:36).

Relatively unambitious (Simpson and Simpson, 1969:231), female teachers' early commitment to a career of teaching is problematic (Pavalko, 1971:162). Their decision to enter teaching may be made partly on the grounds that it has historically been one of the few careers open to women. In some cases, Pavalko (1971:48) suggests that the decision is made on fortuitous, even trivial, grounds. In other cases, teaching qualifications provide a measure of security or insurance against future contingencies, i.e., a certificate of mobility between an occupational role and other roles which women may be called on to play (Leggatt, 1970:165; Corey, 1970:9).

Etzioni (1969:xv) summarizes the effects of having large numbers of females in the composition of the teaching force when he states that, on the average, they are more amenable to administrative control than men, less conscious of organizational status, and more submissive in the bureaucratic context. Simpson and Simpson (1969:199, 246) add further consequences, namely, a reduced solidarity for collegial automony, a lack of informal work norms, and a proliferation of bureaucratic rules which are not strongly and uniformly resisted by teachers on a united front. Hence the forces for bureaucratic control are strengthened.

Conclusion

In spite of the many influences outlined above which appear to favour the entrenchment of bureaucratic control over the teaching profession -- and MacDonald (1970:8) makes the point that in Canada, in particular, there seems to be no serious disposition to relax administrative controls -- there are clear signs that this state of affairs is unlikely to obtain over the next decade. Two widespread cultural movements which are active and potential forces for changing the existing balance between professional authority and hierarchical control are the elimination of discrimination against women and the rise of teacher militancy. Current economic conditions and demographic factors may also be favourable to the growth of professional autonomy. The bulge in pupil population has been met, at least for the time being in Alberta's case, reducing the rate of growth in demand for teachers. Simultaneously, salaries and conditions of work have probably improved, making teaching more attractive to young people choosing careers (Sergiovanni and Carver, 1973:27). Furthermore, in place of foreshortened training courses which critical shortages of teachers apparently made essential in the past, the emphasis is now on longer periods of formal teacher preparation in tertiary institutions. In Alberta, as mentioned earlier, four years of University education is now minimal for obtaining permanent teaching qualifications. This may result, firstly, in increased effectiveness of training institution socialization practices and higher levels of need for professional autonomy among neophytes, thereby increasing the tension between organizational bureaucratic constraints and practitioner professionalism (Olesen and Whittaker, 1970:194). Secondly, it may affect the range and depth of what is taught in schools and how it is taught, thereby weakening the position of lay opinion of and lay control over teaching.

Birch (1969:52) predicts that teachers will demand greater responsibility and control over all aspects of their work. Corwin (1970:341) reports that the vast majority of teachers want more control and a clear majority want teachers to have ultimate authority over major educational decisions. Thus of the conflict areas identified by Scott (1966:269-273) in his discussion of professionals who work in bureaucracies, three appear to have immediate relevance for teachers. Firstly, the desire for professional autonomy and responsibility may lead to increasing resistance to bureaucratic rules. Secondly, internalization of ideals and standards given primacy during the time spent at professional training institutions may lead to increasing rejection of bureaucratic standards. And thirdly, the authority relations involved in an administrative hierarchy of control, coordination and supervision may lead to increasing resistance to bureaucratic supervision in favour of the authority of professional colleagues. Etzioni (1969:x), however, sees greater creativity and individual decision-power as the mainstream of resistance to bureaucratic supervision. This may be more likely in the case of teachers, who generally seem to prefer not to evaluate formally other teachers' work (Lortie, 1969:25).

This section, therefore, provides the situational context confronting the neophyte practitioner. The subordination of teachers, which, according to Simpson and Simpson (1969:245), is traditionally extended into the community, is under challenge. Furthermore, the enervating and tension ridden policing assignments which teachers have to endure in addition to their professional work load (Selden, 1970:68) is also under challenge. In these respects, Etzioni (1969:xvii) raises the questions: how professional is the self image? How is the adjustment to the reality of supervision from above to be achieved?

It is with such questions that this study is concerned, specifically in relation to beginning teachers. The following section, therefore, focuses the discussion on newcomers to the teaching profession, the emphasis being on the difficulties they face as they seek satisfaction from growth towards professional autonomy.

V. THE BEGINNING TEACHER

This section concentrates the focus of the review of the literature on to beginning teachers. Sergiovanni and Carver (1973:30), speaking of the "new breed of teacher", suggest that he is more assertive, more aggressive and more autonomous than his predecessor, and, at the same time, less respectful of authority, less conforming, and less malleable. Yet they also state that commitment to educational purposes and to the educational profession seems to be increasing among teachers, particularly newcomers. This is so because the prospective teacher (and the supply pool of students from which he comes) lives amid a culture that values people-helping occupations and intrinsically satisfying careers (Bush, 1970:131; Sergiovanni and Carver, 1973:27).

This is not to deny that in choosing a professional career, prospective entrants are well aware of prestige factors, such as the income and life-style which practitioners are able to command (Heist, 1962:213-215). For teachers, Lortie (1969:32) notes that, apart from such extrinsic rewards, teachers may gain job satisfaction from ancillary benefits, in which category he includes security, freedom from competition, time for travel, etc. But it is only in the case of intrinsic rewards that satisfaction varies with the individual teacher's effort -- the satisfaction that comes from planning classes, managing the classroom, "reaching" students and having them progress, associating with pupils and with other teachers, and so on. Intrinsic satisfaction in turn depends on the individual teacher having freedom to choose the criteria and techniques to be used in assessing performance (Lortie, 1969:33). This implies that in the core professional activities at least, in order to experience satisfaction, teachers require a large measure of freedom of decision making, which MacDonald (1970:33) identifies as the distinguishing mark of the professional.

It is well documented that, during the preparation program, the student teacher experiences a movement in his professional outlook towards the ideology of the faculty (Chaltas et al., 1968:81), though Olesen and Whittaker (1970:192) observe that this interaction involves reciprocities -- it is not simply a process of assimilation and moulding, but one of exchange. It is not unreasonable to suggest that faculty members, with access to the most recent research findings and discursive thinking, are probably in the vanguard of modern approaches to the problems of the teaching profession. To the extent that this is so, the professional socialization of teachers in training may reinforce the new breed of teachers' attitudes towards greater professional autonomy and less conformity to bureaucratic rules, standards and supervision.

Chaltas and his associates (1968:77) claim that few school districts provide for continuing support for beginning teachers through the first year of service. In other words, at the very time when the neophyte is most susceptible to influences which may have a direct bearing on his future career as a professional teacher (Kolb et al,, 1971:8), he is largely left to his own resources. For teaching does not incorporate intensive contact with senior colleagues as part of a formal pattern for the induction of neophytes into the profession (Lortie, 1969:28). On the contrary, Ziolkowski's (1965:137) study demonstrates that beginning teachers' exposure to their colleagues at work may be non-existent, even in schools judged to be superior.

This is not to say that beginning teachers are not influenced by their experienced colleagues, but in terms of professionalism, the socializing influences of colleagues are either unfavorable in reality, or not reported in the literature reviewed. Bush (1970:121) writes:

> One of the most serious problems affecting the new teacher . . . is the manner and content by which he is socialized by his older colleagues.

Willower (1969:121), for example, reports that a major problem lies in convincing the more experienced teachers that their younger colleagues are not soft on discipline, and Helsel (1971:45) adds that the ability to control pupils appears to be equated with ability to teach. The socializing influence here clearly favours increased custodialism on the part of teachers.

Again, Chaltas et al. (1969:78) refer to the "Let me show you:

forget all that garbage" syndrome, the implication being that the theoretical underpinnings of teaching practice and the values internalized during the training period have no place in the schools.

A third collegial influence is the cynicism with which the neophyte may have to contend, and which MacDonald (1970:8) describes as a state of mind already sufficiently common among teachers to need no aggravation.

In light of such attitudes expressed by experienced teachers, the newcomer faces problems of adjustment and of establishing congenial on-the-job relationships. However, the fact remains that March and Simon (1958:95) see conformity of the job to the self-image and predictability of job relationships as two major sources of satisfaction.

Corwin (1970:106) raises another issue which introduces a further difficulty for the neophyte. As good students are in relatively short supply, competition among teachers to be assigned to the better classes is keen. Moreover, status is attached to teaching better students and senior grades. Hence Corey (1970:7) asserts that beginners are often faced with the difficult situations which older teachers avoid. "Difficult situations" may be extended to include extra-curricular activities and non-teaching duties -- preferential treatment to older teachers is one way of recognizing and rewarding past services rendered.

Finally, the assessment of beginning teachers' work by administrators and supervisors is also subject to severe criticism in the literature. As will be seen in the following chapter, there are ample grounds for supposing that administrative behaviors and supervisory practices often do not lead to teacher satisfaction but to teacher turnover and attrition.

Conclusion

It seems clear that the new breed of teacher, when confronted by the realities of his first appointment to a school staff, is likely to experience "career crunch" (Pavalko, 1971:156). In MacDonald's (1970:10) words:

> It ought to be recognized . . . that the novice practitioner comes into contact, very early in his teaching career, with idea systems quite different from those displayed during his period of training, and that acceptance, or apparent acceptance, of these new systems, which have the support of his older colleagues, is usually necessary if he is to establish himself as a teacher.

The seriousness of the situation is underscored by Bush (Stinnett, 1970:168), who makes the following comment:

> Unless we can fundamentally change what happens to the beginning teacher during the first one, two or three years . . . I don't think we are going to make any really fundamental inroad on the dropout problem.

If, also, there is a cultural lag between the older, experienced supervisor and the younger, recently trained neophyte, as suggested by Toren (1969:178), then it may be timely to consider some of the alternatives to existing mechanisms of control proposed by Corwin (1970:350). Corwin proposes alterations to the authority system whereby decision responsibility and authority revert to teachers, the administration concentrating on community relations. He also indicates that different standards of teacher evaluation could be established, and advocates experimentation with administrative styles which open up relationships within the hierarchy.

Barstow (1970:31) condemns the failure to provide satisfactory machinery for full-scale teacher participation in educational decision making. He sees this as a key factor in teacher attrition, arguing that its absence induces frustration and low morale. In other words, enough dissatisfaction is experienced to cause teachers to leave the profession.

Barstow's point is well taken. But what is of particular significance with regard to beginning teachers is that, as they are the lowest ranking teachers in the organization, their ideas and suggestions may be ignored. That this is not uncommon in so-called participative decision making is well documented in the literature (Miles, 1964:469; Owens, 1970:98). It is similar to situations referred to earlier when beginning teachers' desires to be assigned to certain classes or to be relieved of certain non-professional duties may be ignored in favour of older colleagues' preferences.

If, therefore, the new breed of beginning teacher is seeking professional satisfaction through gratification of his needs for esteem and autonomy, and if the administrator is concerned with the professional future of neophytes working under him, the two areas of teacher-administrator relationships which appear to be of critical moment at this time are (i) the real involvement of beginning teachers in decisions which affect their satisfaction on and with the job; and (ii) supervisory practices which foster professional growth toward autonomy rather than those which subordinate it to bureaucratic control.

It is to these two areas, therefore, that this review of the literature now addresses itself.

VI. SUMMARY OF CHAPTER II

This Chapter examines the literature at large in so far as it pertains, firstly, to the satisfaction of employees in organizations; secondly, to the satisfaction of teachers working in a particular organizational context; and thirdly, to the difficulties which may confront beginning teachers in their search for satisfaction both on and with the job.

The analytical review of approaches to the nature of satisfaction and ways of achieving it in organizations reveals a high degree of consensus among the theoretical proposals and empirical findings discussed. Satisfaction is experienced as a result of a need or want being gratified; it is a state of contentment.

For teachers, in so far as their basic physiological and security needs are now largely fulfilled, their current need gratifications appear to be operative at the level of esteem and autonomy. Their autonomy needs are seen to be of particular relevance at this point in time, but this brings them into direct conflict with hierarchical authority and bureaucratic control mechanisms as growth in professional autonomy leads to increased resistance to bureaucratic rules, standards and supervision. The latter may be regarded as the traditional control mechanisms invoked by educational administrators.

The last section of the chapter discusses the particular difficulties which beginning teachers have to surmount if they are to achieve the satisfaction associated with professional autonomy. It emphasizes that the neophyte who is the product of today's youth culture is likely to be more strongly oriented towards professional autonomy than his predecessors.

In light of what is revealed by this survey of the literature, it appears to be of critical importance to find whether beginning teachers are really (rather than superficially) involved in decisions affecting their job satisfaction and whether supervisory practices now in vogue foster growth in professional autonomy rather than subordinate it to bureaucratic control.

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CHAPTER III

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE, PART II

I. INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter provided the general background to the present study. Two aspects of professional autonomy appear to be critical to high levels of the professional satisfaction of teachers, namely, their participation in decision making ~~areas which affect~~ their felt satisfaction with their work and work environment; and supervisory practices of administrators who are perceived as having the power to thwart their autonomy needs.

This chapter examines the literature and research findings relating, firstly, to participation in decision making, and secondly, to supervisory practices.

With regard to the former, Strauss's (1963:58) conception of joint decision making has been adopted. According to this view, decisions may be made by the superordinate (which involves direction of subordinates), jointly with subordinates (which is consultation), or by the subordinate (which involves delegation of authority and responsibility). Participative decision making is defined here as joint, co-operative or shared decision making (Ratsoy, 1973:161).

The opening sections of this Chapter examine issues relating directly to control over the locus of decision making. In the next section (Section II), the central issue of control is discussed and the advantages and disadvantages of participative decision making are briefly considered. In school systems, the principal emerges as the key figure, mediating between the demands of bureaucracy on the one hand and the demands of professional autonomy for teachers on the other.

Related Canadian research is reviewed fairly extensively in Section III. In this way, it is possible to establish the areas of decision making likely to be of immediate importance to the neophyte practitioner in terms of his need for professional autonomy and hence his satisfaction with his chosen professional career. These decision areas are summarized in Section IV.

Supervision is defined in Section V of this Chapter. It is seen as a term which has both positive and negative connotations. For teachers, positive valence is associated with supervisory practices which promote professional growth and satisfaction. Even so, "Recognition" as a positive supervisory practice seems to be overlooked in some of the literature reviewed. Also largely ignored in some of the more recent writings is an essential ingredient of supervision, namely the evaluation of teachers and their work. These matters are discussed in relation to an hierarchical control system.

The interrelatedness of the decision making and supervision dimensions of control is noted. In neither case, however, do teachers appear to want full-fledged professional autonomy.

With regard to supervision, the principal's role is again seen to be central, especially for beginning teachers. Though the principal operates under certain constraints, it is to him that beginning teachers appear likely to turn in matters relating to either critical evaluation or professional growth.

The review of related literature and research (Sections VI and VII) underscores the importance of supervision to beginning teachers. Supervisory practices employed by principals are identified, and those which appear most likely to have impact on the satisfaction of beginning teachers are enumerated as conclusions to the three sections of the Chapter which examine supervision.

The Chapter concludes with a statement of hypotheses, followed by an overview of the research framework.

II. DECISION MAKING: RELATED LITERATURE

The issue of control

McBeath (1968:3) observes that one of the most critical dilemmas facing modern school organizations is the reconciliation of teacher expectations for increasing autonomy and responsibility in making decisions with the traditional demand for coordination through centralized control. It would appear that the crux of the problem lies in the issue of control, since, as Tannenbaum (1968a:23) points out:

> There is no escaping the need for some system of control in organizations, including participative organizations. The relative success of participative approaches . . . hinges, not on reducing control, but on achieving a system of control that is more effective than that of other systems.

Though teachers may be wanting, seeking and demanding greater professional autonomy and authority in the making of decisions and greater freedom from bureaucratic domination (Owens, 1970:103), there is ample logical and empirical evidence in the literature to demonstrate that all teachers neither require nor desire absolute autonomy to decide every matter pertaining to an educational system. Chase's (1952:3) early study of over 2200 teachers revealed that too much pressure to obtain participation of teachers in educational planning can become a source of resentment and dissatisfaction. On the other hand, Chase also records that, for many teachers, intense satisfaction was derived from sharing in educational planning and policy-making in regard to instruction, working conditions and teacher welfare. Bridges (1967:52) proposes the tests of relevance (whether teachers have some stake in the outcome of the decision) and expertise (whether teachers have the experience and competence to contribute to the decision) as appropriate criteria for involving teachers in decision making. Neal (1964:31) feels that many teachers are not prepared to accept the responsibilities which complete decentralization of decision making involves. Clearly there is a distinction to be drawn between pressure for complete autonomy and the demand for some degree of decentralization (Miklos, 1970:27), a distinction confirmed by numerous studies of teacher attitudes, as will be shown.

Any decision making, of course, involves the two aspects, content and process. As Blake and Mouton (1961:59) point out, process refers to how the decision is made. "Process", therefore, is taken to subsume both the locus and timing of decision making, as well as information and communication flows and the degree of participation enjoyed by subordinates.

Ratsoy's (1973:161) conceptualization of Hierarchical Management as one end of a continuum of management styles and Participative Management (wherein decision making is shared jointly or cooperatively) at the other is, therefore, particularly useful and relevant to the issue of control over decision making in school organizations. Even were the continuum extended to include Complete Autonomy, it is hardly conceivable that teachers, for example, would make decisions without considering the possible reactions of other parties affected by such decisions (Strauss, 1963:59).

At the hierarchical end of the continuum, Corwin (1970:11) sees the "standard" characteristics of bureaucracy -- chain of command, centralized authority, standardized procedures, rules and close supervision -- as ways of maintaining control. Bureaucratic control may be consistent with the view that teachers are merely subordinate employees, but conflicts fundamentally with their professional responsibility for improving the quality of education, a responsibility which, according to Corwin (1970:42), entails teacher discretion and initiative in interpreting and altering school policy. Neal (1964:33) agrees: the impersonality, loss of personal satisfaction and reliance on rules to which bureaucratic controls often lead are particularly inappropriate for teaching, preventing teachers from taking advantage of any increased professional competence they may be acquiring.

Corwin's (1970:342) findings showed that nearly half of the conflicts reported in his study of high school teachers could be classified as authority problems, one in every four disputes being between teachers and administrators. For Corwin (p. 24), then, probably the most crucial set of relationships are those in which one party exercises control over another.

Blake and Mouton (1961:39) also emphasize the importance of the prevailing power system in an organization. As between an authority-obedience power system (hierarchical management) and a system of human cooperation (participative management), they state:

> A study of the dynamics of power shows clearcut connections between the power distribution between supervisor and subordinate and their relative feelings of satisfaction and responsibility.

The area of control, power and influence in organizations and its relationship to individual adjustment and organizational effectiveness has been extensively researched and reviewed by Tannenbaum (1968b: 307). He points out that every act of control has both pragmatic and symbolic implications. The former imply restrictions on the exercise of discretion, but the latter are especially significant in that emotional (and psychological) overtones may be implied in regard to such feelings as superiority or inferiority, dominance or submission, guidance and help or criticism and reprimand. The link with March and Simon's self-image, job relationships and competence factors, Maslow's esteem needs, Argyris' adulthood dimensions and Herzberg's satisfiers seems clear.

Furthermore, Tannenbaum finds that the exercise of control is a major basis for the psychological integration of the member into the system. Responsibility creates a sense of personal involvement, whereas individuals who are not able to exercise control are, in general, less satisfied with their work situations. Schein (1970:78) identifies three types of individual adjustment to an organization: active rebellion, conformity, and creative individualism. Tannenbaum introduces a fourth type, namely, uninfluential members whose dissatisfaction often has the alienated quality of apathy and disinvolvement.

It should be noted that, for today's beginning teachers in particular, the psychological contract may include expectations of becoming influential rather than powerless, and of being creative rather than conformist. In general, Miklos (1970:25) notes that teachers are more likely to be satisfied with a decision making structure which conforms to their role expectations than with one that does not. He goes on to suggest what he sees as an essential correlate, namely changes in the distribution of power and influence within the school system.

All this is not to say that the teacher's gain in terms of greater decision making authority is the administrator's loss. A number of arguments may be advanced to show otherwise. Firstly, March and Simon (1958:54) suggest that, as well as giving greater influence to lower echelons in the organization, participative management allows management to participate more fully in decision making. This apparent paradox may be explained in terms of reducing the discrepancy between informal and formal decision making networks. In this respect, Smith and Brown (1968:129) report that:

> Both the results of small group and organization research indicate the importance of a free flow of information for understanding and consensus, problem-solving and decision making, and member satisfaction.

Secondly, the exercise of responsibility and control may result in greater loyalty and identification felt with the organization (Tannenbaum, 1968b:308). Tannenbaum argues that this applies to superordinates as well as to subordinates.

Thirdly, the total amount of power, influence and control in an organization may change. In fact, Tannenbaum (1968b:309) provides data supporting the contention that organizational effectiveness is likely to increase when both leaders and members are more rather than less influential. Research by Smith and Ari (1968:162) also justifies their conclusion that "the significant exercise of control by both members and leaders leads to a high degree of identification and involvement in the organization." Kelly (1973:224) observes that power emanates from group members working together rather than resulting from loss of power by others --- the synergetic effect of group work.

In short, it seems that greater teacher decision making authority may be conducive to growth in professional autonomy and professional satisfaction. One of the conclusions of Sharma's (1955:4) study of 568 teachers lends strong support to this notion:

> In analyzing the teachers' expressions of satisfaction with their positions, Sharma found that their satisfaction was related directly to the extent to which current practices in decision making in their school conformed to the practices which they felt should be followed. Furthermore, their satisfaction was related directly to the extent that they participated in decision making . . .

However, other advantages of teacher participation in decision making are enumerated in the literature, along with certain cautions. To these aspects the discussion now turns.

The pros and cons of participation

Riffel's (1969:39) analysis provides a convenient summary of the advantages of teacher participation in decision making which were raised in the previous section: increased participation is accompanied by greater ego involvement, greater identification with organizational goals, and greater teacher motivation and professional satisfaction.

On a more general level of analysis, participative management has sometimes been supported on the basis of a democratically sound principle which should be invoked (Bridges, 1969:1; Owens, 1970:105): those affected by decisions should have a voice in making them (Kelly, 1973:19). Organizationally, the principle which is applied is that decisions, to be effective, should be made as close to the point of implementation as possible (Simpkins and Friesen, 1969:13). Blake and Mouton (1961:61) add that the greater the expressed agreement with a decision, the more likely it will succeed in terms of "carry through." Furthermore, organization members may be thought of as potential resources whose contribution in terms of information and/or suggestions should be effectively utilized (Katz and Kahn, 1966:339). Participative methods allow error correction and perception checks to improve the decision arrived at and disseminated. In short, as Smith and Ari (1968:163) suggest:

> It may be inferred that the joint contributions of members and leaders facilitate better and more acceptable policies and decisions insuring their translation into concerted action . . .

There is, however, the other side of the coin. Coughlan (1970:222) makes explicit the assumption on which argumentation for individual satisfaction on the job through gratification of needs rests. The assumption is that individuals have inherent and acquired needs, some of which can be satisfied by specific dimensions in their work environment. Strauss (1963:48) raises a number of objections to such an assumption. He argues that value judgments underlie the proposition that management adopt policies which promote intrinsic job satisfaction, individual development and creativity, and through which people willingly work towards organizational goals, enjoy their work and feel that it is important to do a good job. But even though individuals are not motivated solely to obtain autonomy, self-actualization and so forth, and want money and security and to know what is expected of them; and even though adequate performance is all management requires of assembly line workers, as Strauss (1963:47-54) maintains, even so, the weight of empirical evidence from research into teacher attitudes, at least, supports the philosophical position of McGregor, Maslow, Argyris, Herzberg, Schein, and many others.

To be fair to Strauss, (1963:73) he does make some concessions in the case of professionals. He also identifies a number of potential costs which participative management may incur (p. 80). For example, some training of both administrators and subordinates may be necessary for participation to be successful. Again, time is an expensive commodity, and participative decision making can use much of it, as Plaxton (1969:139) and Kelly (1973:221) demonstrate.

Furthermore, there may be psychological costs involved. Kelly (1973:221) cautions that participation may become an end in itself, rather than a means to goal achievement. He also notes the difficulty and frustration experienced by the college personnel of his study as they attempted to cope with decision making autonomy.

But perhaps the most serious charge against participative management focuses on the possibilities of manipulation. One of Chase's (1952:3) conclusions is that a pretense of allowing participation may produce more dissatisfaction than satisfaction. According to Strauss (1963:59), the formalities of consultation and delegation can easily cloud the realities of the influence process. As Etzioni (1964:45) puts it:

> Those lower in rank might be invited to participate . . . when in fact the decisions have already been made and the real purpose is to get the lower rank to accept them. Or the lower in rank are allowed to decide on relatively unimportant matters. . .

Hence authentic and trusting relationships are a necessary ingredient of participative management (Bridges, 1969:3). Kolb et al. (1971:8) point out that an organization staffed by "cheated" individuals who expect far more than they get is headed for trouble. Owens (1970: 106) illustrates the kind of trouble a New England school was faced with in just such circumstances -- a sullen and divided school staff, deeply suspicious of "democratic participation." Becker (1964:248), too, notes the conflict resulting from ignoring teachers' need for professional independence, which includes real teacher involvement in decision making. Finally, a recently reported study by Alutto and Belasco (1973:40) supports this finding. In their study, the decisionally deprived teachers exhibited greater militancy, as hypothesized.

Of particular interest in the context of the present study is the comment which Carson et al. (1967:58) make in the course of their report on teacher participation in the community. If an administrator desires to increase teacher participation and encourage innovation, they suggest that he directs his efforts towards teachers whose years of experience are few. It is these teachers who are the most receptive to changes in role behavior.

Inkpen et al. (1975:1) suggest that this is so because the older teachers may be habituated to a system where the locus of decision making has traditionally rested in the higher levels of the organization.

It has been shown that the professional autonomy of teachers involves more than just allowing participation in decision making at the discretion of the administration (Lane et al., 1967:415). Owens (1970:

217) asserts that few principals seriously consider involving teachers in significant problems or central decisions partly because they view teachers as ill-equipped or unwilling to take on such serious responsibilities. There are undoubted limitations to teacher competence in terms of access to resources, information, and interpretation of society's wishes in regard to school systems (Stewart, 1968:30). It may also be possible to generalize the finding of Carson et al. (1967: 62) that "when activities bear upon the traditional prerogatives of administrators and school board members, support for teacher participation in these activities decreases sharply." But even though it is possible to argue that principals themselves may be similarly constrained by hierarchical control, Bride's (1973:218) investigation of the attitudes of 712 Alberta teachers demonstrates that principals are undoubtedly recognized as the group enjoying the highest positional prestige.

The discussion, therefore, now turns to the centrality of the principal in his role as mediator between the bureaucratic control system and the teachers' drive for professional autonomy. After all, the professional satisfaction of beginning teachers may lie in his hands.

III. RELATED CANADIAN RESEARCH INTO DECISION MAKING AND THE SATISFACTION OF TEACHERS

Introduction

The preponderance of evidence from both the discursive and research literature reviewed throughout this report reveals that there is a strong, positive relationship between teacher participation in decisions affecting their professional autonomy and teacher satisfaction.

The purposes of this section are:

(i) to demonstrate that, generally speaking, Canadian teachers want to share in a wide range of decision issues and regard participation as a source of satisfaction; and

(ii) to establish that the principal is the key figure in the implementation of participative decision making, but that there is recognition of limitations to his power.

This review is delimited to research carried out in school systems. Specific references are made to beginning teachers where the research makes this possible, and decision areas which appear likely to be of importance to beginning teacher satisfaction are identified, and then enumerated in the concluding section.

The presentation of research findings in chronological order seems both appropriate and satisfactory for present purposes.

(I) Canadian teachers want to share in a wide range of decision issues, and regard participation as a source of satisfaction. Francoeur (1963) investigated factors affecting the satisfaction and dissatisfaction of a sample of 472 teachers employed by the Quebec Catholic School Commission. Her findings showed that regular participation in policy making, freedom in the choice of teaching methods, and consideration for teacher preferences in job assignments are among the factors most likely to produce great satisfaction (p. iv). She also found that over thirty-seven percent of teachers with up to five years' experience either did not find teaching satisfying or felt that they might like other occupations better (p. 44).

Simpkins (1968) analyzed the distribution of decision making authority by decision source -- teacher, staff group, or higher official authority -- and by task area, in fourteen Edmonton schools. His data indicate that teachers desire a substantial shift in the balance of power between higher authority and the formal staff group (p. 261), a shift that would give the teaching staff a leading role in such decision areas as the allocation of money for instructional resources, teaching load and other duties, and rules for the student body (p. 209). Simpkins also found little evidence of variation in teacher opinion according to years of teaching experience (p. 263). In other words, teachers with relatively few years of experience desired decision making involvement as much as other teachers did.

Inkpen et al. (1975), using the instrument developed by Simpkins with some additions, reported no significant interaction between age and any of the five decision areas investigated among his sample of 279 Newfoundland elementary teachers. However, significant differences existed between perceived and desired levels of teacher involvement in decisions about curriculum, classroom management, the instructional program, school organization and building construction (p. 3).

Milne (1968) focused on the problems of first year teachers in an urban school system. The 220 teachers reported very little difficulty in coping with the eight problem areas included in the questionnaire (p. 42). Although Classroom Routine, Methods, Teaching Resources, Evaluation of Pupils and School Goals, Planning, Relationships with Parents, Discipline, and Professional Relationships were all investigated, the only finding relevant to the present review was that those beginning teachers under the age of twenty experienced relatively more difficulty in Relationships with parents (p. 49). This supports an earlier finding by Lundrigan (1966:125) who reports that excessive parental criticism was a concern especially to the younger Newfoundland teachers of his sample. However, Milne's finding of "little difficulty" appears to be an unlikely reflection of reality, and directly contradicts all other literature cited by the present writer.

Hawley's (1969) study is of particular interest because he included groups of student teachers as well as practicing teachers in his investigation into actual and preferred levels of curriculum decision making. For six of the fifteen decision items, the student teachers preferred a level of decision making closer to the classroom than did practicing teachers (p. 88). Of significance here is that two student groups were to enter the classroom the following school year as beginning teachers. Unfortunately for the purposes of the present study, Hawley's categorization of teachers by years of experience included all those with from one to ten years (p. 58). Therefore no findings were reported with regard to beginning teachers' attitudes.

However, Hawley did show that both teachers and student teachers desired active decision participation in all but two of the items, and that shared decision making was "by far the most popular" form of participation (p. 116).

Massé (1969) conducted his study of teacher participation and professional attitudes among 665 Quebec teachers. He found that "teachers desired a degree of participation significantly different from the degree they perceived they had" (p. 98), and confirmed that teachers are striving for greater autonomy (p. 101). Massé (p. 22) notes that earlier studies by Hrynyk, Robinson and Scharf established that teachers exhibit wide variations in their Professional Role Orientation, and hence in their predisposition to professional behavior. Scharf (1969: 241) found only a minor relationship between satisfaction and the professional role orientation of the 529 teachers of his sample. Neither Massé nor Scharf, however, focused on beginning teachers as such.

An investigation into teacher turnover in the Grande Prairie, Alberta, school system (Carmack, 1970) revealed that teacher dissatisfaction grew with teacher perception of heavy work loads (p. 113). The questionnaire used in the study included over twenty questions relating to reasons why former Grande Prairie teachers had left the system. The reported findings, however, are based on data using only one of the questions, a checklist item. It may be that a number of dissatisfiers leading to teacher turnover were thus overlooked in the reported findings.

Clarke (1970) asked 176 teachers of a rural county school system in Alberta for their perceptions of decision making roles in five areas, Curriculum and Methods, Pupil Supervision, Evaluation, Control, and School Organization. He found that, in all five areas, a significant difference existed between the teachers' perceptions of actual and preferred decision making roles (p. 108). Furthermore, there was a significant relationship between this discrepancy and the teachers' level of satisfaction with their school situation in general (p. 110). The teachers wanted the principal to "function as a colleague with respect to the overall business of the school" (p. 111). Clarke concludes that teacher control over decisions affecting his own activity weighs heavily on his level of satisfaction.

For his investigation into shared decision making in three Edmonton high schools, Probert (1971) obtained data from 9 administrators, 82 teachers and 77 high school students. The most critical issues included in the thirty item questionnaire proved to be the instructional program, the extra-curricular program and school-wide rules and regulations. In respect to these items, Probert notes that almost all member groups preferred shared decision making (p. 178). One school reported decisions being made at both lower perceived and lower preferred hierarchical levels, compared with the other two schools. Although the teachers found participation very demanding (p. 180), groups in the school with the lowest locus of decision making had the highest average satisfaction score (p. 177). The lowest average satisfaction score was associated with the school having the highest level of administration-orientation in decision making items (p. 177).

Sullivan (1971), using data from almost 2100 Alberta teachers, sought predictors of teacher mobility and turnover. His findings showed that the turnover rate for males during the first two years of teaching was 18%, and during the first four years, 49%. For females, there was a 59% turnover in the first four years of teaching (p. 70). It is reasonable to suppose that turnover rates of this magnitude would pose problems for administrators. Sullivan indicates a relationship between turnover and working conditions (p. 91). For teachers who quit the profession, however, not only working conditions but also assignment to the preferred subject area appeared important (p. 105, 106). Sullivan's findings certainly appear to justify an investigation into the professional satisfaction of beginning teachers.

The last research study to be included in this section is Blacker's (1971) investigation into teachers' and principals' perceptions of school budget decentralization. Blacker found that the 53 principals and the 161 teachers of his Edmonton study desired increased decentralization in the establishment of a budget for their schools (p. 81), i.e., principals and teachers wanted greater autonomy at the school level.

This finding thus brings the building principal back into focus, and a review of the research relating to his role in implementing participative decision making now follows.

(II) The principal appears to be the key figure in the implementation of participative decision making, but there is recognition of limitations on his power. Robinson (1965:9) cites studies by Andrews and MacKay which support the notion that Alberta teachers dislike emphasis on hierarchical authority. Andrews found a significant negative relationship between teacher satisfaction and aloof principal behavior. MacKay reported an inverse relationship between emphasis on hierarchical authority within the school and the teachers' rating of the school as a good school. Thus both studies throw the spotlight on the principal.

Hohn's (1964) study of the causes of teacher transfer in an Alberta school system generally supported related studies on nine major causes of teacher transfer which the researcher identified. There were 157 teachers involved in the study. Hohn reports that the teachers felt that the administration neither respected their specialized competence nor enabled them to utilize it (pp. 82-83). Hohn places "overly autocratic administration" high on the list of transfer causes (p. 101). Also included were lack of well-defined lines of authority, lack of administrative leadership, lack of communication between the administration and teachers, and the principals' administrative behaviors (p. 101). These would all appear to be interrelated. Hohn adds three other major causes of transfer, namely, lack of instructional leadership, lack of non-teaching time and lack of motivation for new teachers. Beginning teachers may be particularly affected in each case.

However, the present writer feels that he detected bias in Hohn's instrument, which framed all items from a negative viewpoint and heavily underscored the "failed to" aspect of each. In reporting his findings, Hohn emphasizes that Administration and Supervision factors were major, primary causes of teacher transfer (pp. 62, 74, 101). The most influential group of causes were, in fact, Personal and Family Factors (p. 109).

Although Ziolkowski (1965) was mainly interested in the supervisory practices of 30 Saskatchewan high school principals, his findings support Hohn's to some extent. For example, the key to instructional improvement appears to lie in the area of principal-teacher relations (p. 141). Principals perceived by the 396 teacher respondents as successful consulted their staffs on decisions. Success was achieved predominantly by removing frustration and providing the stimulus which enabled teachers to do "their professional best" (p. 140).

The centrality of the administration in teacher morale was further confirmed by Johnson's (1968) examination of relationships between teacher satisfaction and school socio-economic status. Although socio-economic status is only one factor in morale scores (p. 80), Johnson showed that teachers in low status schools expressed higher satisfaction with regard to their rapport with the principal than did other teachers.

Wilson (1968) investigated the perceptions of school autonomy of 639 Alberta principals. Principals reported only minor constraints on school autonomy from two sources, the superintendent and the local community. The school board, however, subjected some schools, mainly elementary, to considerable influence (p. 62). Least autonomy was experienced in regard to curriculum-related matters, and most in regard to pupil placement and discipline (p. 62).

Wilson (p. 64) is prompted to ask whether principals' perceptions of autonomy agree with staff perceptions over a number of decision areas. Corriveau provides an answer for Wilson. Respondents comprised 135 principals and 765 teachers from Quebec: principals perceived teachers as participating more than teachers thought they were; and principals preferred teachers to participate less than teachers thought they should on most organizational decisions, on most decisions pertaining to the teaching profession and on some curriculum decisions (pp. 85-86).

Clarke (1970:28) notes that the degree of autonomy possessed by a school constrains the delegation of decision making responsibilities by a principal to his staff. His study (supra, p. 66) showed that, in decisions pertaining to school administration and management, the principal was perceived by teachers to have major control (p. 110). The teachers wanted the power and authority vested in the office of the principal replaced by a collegial arrangement (p. 111).

Parsons' (1971) Ontario research findings were based on 556 elementary school teacher respondents. The principalship was rated as the most influential and effective supervisory position. Effective principals were shown to be significantly less bureaucratic in their behavior than ineffective principals (pp. 6-7). Parsons' recommendations include that provision be made for more professional educational decisions to be taken at the school level by the principal and his staff (p. 8).

Bride (1973) found that the principal holds the highest prestige position as far as Alberta teachers are concerned (p. 218). But where Parsons recommends greater school autonomy and teacher participation, Bride (p. 222) expresses fears that further erosion of professional autonomy may occur:

> If attempts are made to centralize further the control of work related activities and thus reduce the professional autonomy of teachers, the effective and harmonious operation of the school could be seriously jeopardized.

A recent study of 41 British Columbia elementary schools is reported by Jackson (1974). Jackson's findings appear to support both Parsons and Bride. He concludes that organizationally healthy schools show a reasonable distribution of shared decision making among the principal and organizational members. Principals who maintain a structure of participative decision making within a school even though no formal obligation exists, enjoy greater staff acceptance and increased school effectiveness (p. 26). Jackson adds that healthy organizations make efficient use of human and material resources. In school terms, this means utilization of specialized competence and provision of adequate supplementary material for instructional purposes (p. 26). Jackson's research implies that principals should strive to upgrade the professional competence of their teachers, both by meeting individually with them to review organizational and personal goals (p. 26), and by bringing to their attention relevant educational literature (p. 27).

For beginning teacher-principal relationships in particular, Jackson's study seems to be especially significant. By such means as he proposes, role accuracy, clarity and consensus may be achieved at the outset of the neophyte's professional career, resulting in higher levels of professional satisfaction.

Three studies which have not been cited so far deal specifically with beginning teachers. Kuefler (1959) examined the orientation procedures of three separate school systems in Alberta. She found that new teachers did not receive the type of help which they needed most (p. 99). Formanek (1965) interviewed 36 beginning elementary school teachers in the Calgary (Alberta) public school system. His findings show that many beginning teachers would have liked more help in determining their authority, their responsibility, and the expectations held for them as playground supervisors. They also wanted more help in such areas as school policies and procedures, and pupil evaluation (p. 150). For example, only 19% of the teachers felt that they received adequate help in respect of pupil evaluation (p. 55), and many wanted more materials and equipment for certain subject areas (p. 150). Of interest, too, is that the best source of assistance was reported by 75% of the teachers to be the principal or vice-principal.

Finally, McGillivray (1966) surveyed the supervisory assistance received by 140 beginning teachers in three urban centres in Ontario. He directly supports Kuefler's and Formanek's findings: beginning teachers do not feel that they are receiving the most help with their most serious problems (p. 147), which include teaching methods and adjusting their educational goals to those of the school (p. 145). Lundrigan's (1966) study of mobility among Newfoundland teachers also revealed that the administration failed to offer sufficient leadership to younger, less experienced teachers. The more experienced teachers, on the other hand, felt that the administration was too rigid and inflexible (pp. 123-124).

IV. DECISION MAKING: CONCLUSIONS

The literature reviewed indicates that Canadian teachers generally want a participative management style rather than hierarchical, bureaucratic control over a wide range of decision issues. Similarly, shared decision making is a source of professional satisfaction for very large numbers of teachers, and for many principals.

In view of the importance of the very early years of professional practice to the present and future teaching careers of beginners, there appears to be a paucity of research directed specifically at investigating their role in participative decision making. The discursive literature and some of the research findings reviewed strongly imply that the new breed of teacher may very early become disillusioned and dissatisfied with his chosen career unless due regard is paid to his more aggressive, less conformist outlook, and to his greater desire (or need) for autonomy (Sergiovanni and Carver, 1973:30).

An analysis of the review of the literature suggests that the following decision areas may affect the professional satisfaction of the beginning teacher:

1. Work load, including the classes and subject area to which he is assigned, the class contact time, and the extra-curricular activities and non-teaching duties involved.
2. Class management, including the grouping of students, teaching strategies and teacher-pupil relationships.
3. Curriculum, including both the content and sequence of the classroom curriculum, and the provision of adequate instructional resources.
4. Evaluation of pupils, including the means used to evaluate and report pupil progress, pupil placement, and the timing of evaluative procedures.
5. School rules i.e., the determination of rules and regulations for the student body.

Clearly these decision areas are of immediate importance to the neophyte practitioner. Equally clearly, the principal has the legitimate power to influence where the locus of decision making really lies in most cases. One of the purposes of the present investigation is to discover whether beginning teacher satisfaction is related to their perceived involvement in the above decision areas.

V. THE NATURE OF SUPERVISION

Introduction

It will be recalled that the discussion of Decision Making (Section II of this chapter) focused heavily on the issue of control, and that the bureaucratic model of control emphasizes the power and authority of the hierarchy to centralize decision making. In other words, decisions are made by superordinate role incumbents and become directives for the lower ranks to follow.

There is, however, another necessary ingredient to any such authority-obedience system. For once the directives are issued, the rules established and the procedures specified, it is then essential to ensure that they are obeyed. The mechanisms through which this dimension of hierarchical control is maintained are the organization's supervisory practices.

Consideration of both dimensions of bureaucratic control — control by decision directives and control by supervision — suggests that the professional autonomy of teachers involves two conceptually distinct but closely interrelated dimensions of control. On the one hand, participative decision making increases the degree of control which teachers have over their work and their work environment. The satisfaction experienced from gratification of their desire for autonomy is the outcome of a "human approach needs" strategy. On the other hand, the degree of independence from external control over their work and work environment which they are able to achieve through a weakening or removal of unwanted bureaucratic supervisory mechanisms may be thought of as contributing to their autonomy by means of a "human avoidance needs" strategy.

Trends evident in the history of the supervision of teachers lend some support to this point of view. Lucio and McNeil (1962:3-10) show that the inspectoral role has passed from the hands of clergymen and laymen to principals and superintendents of schools. The emphasis also has shifted from attempts to apply principles of scientific management, for example, to creative and democratic supervision, with the human relations approach predominating.

The essential nature of supervision as a means of control has also undergone verbal redefinition in education. According to Webster's International Dictionary (1966), supervision is the act, process or occupation of supervising; it is direction, inspection and critical evaluation. But an examination of the educational literature reveals that supervision appears to be defined in enough different ways to involve every person, task and process even remotely connected with a school system (Hamilton, 1966:6). For example, Harris (1963:10) includes the work of "supervisors, coordinators, consultants, directors, administrators, and others indirectly influencing the instruction of pupils," and defines supervision as:

> . . . what school personnel do with adults and things for the purpose of maintaining or changing the operation of the school in order to directly influence the attainment of the major instructional goals of the school (Harris, 1963:11).

Similarly, Neagley and Evans (1964:17) offer a blanket definition:

> Supervision is positive, democratic action aimed at the improvement of classroom instruction through the continual growth of all concerned — the child, the teacher, the supervisor, the administrator and the parent or other interested lay person.

Perhaps some of the apparent obfuscation of the essential nature of supervision as "over-seeing" arises from the confusion of roles which teachers may experience, seeing themselves as supervisors as far as pupils are concerned, but as supervisees as far as those with greater administrative authority are concerned. Levirs (1958:69), however, is more forthright in his judgment. The educational literature dealing with the theory and practice of supervision, he claims, leans heavily towards the theoretical aspects, and reveals the following weaknesses:

> a tendency to over-simplify the underlying philosophy by ignoring certain aspects of supervision; a tendency to capitalize on words or terms that compensate for their lack of precise meaning by their strong emotional connotations; a tendency to damn past theory and practice by creating a false and indefensible picture of them; a tendency to obscure the specialized function of supervision by generalizing the meaning of the work itself to the point where it includes almost all purposes of education; and a tendency to neglect all those factors in supervision that will not fit nicely into the application of the proposed philosophy.

In view of the pervasive functions attributed to supervision by author definition, it is not surprising to find that terms such as supervisory style, leadership style and administrative style may overlap to the point of being almost indistinguishable. Bride (1973:19), for example, notes that as the bureaucratization of education has occurred, the number of control units and the number of administrative and supervisory personnel have vastly increased, e.g., with regard to curriculum and special education branches, Departmental consultants, heads of departments within schools, and so on. The approach of such administrative-supervisory personnel would seem to favour the consultative and advisory role of a leader rather than the inspectoral role of a boss.

To the extent that this is so, Robinson's (1965:2) definition of supervision seems to appropriately reflect current emphases. According to Robinson:

> Essentially, supervision is that form of professional leadership directed towards the improvement of learning through activities which result in the professional growth of the teaching staff.

Robinson points out that although the central focus of supervision remains on classroom instruction, improved teaching (from which he assumes improved learning will result) is an outcome of professional growth. The latter may be promoted through a variety of non-teaching activities, such as orientation programs, in-service education and action research by staff study committees, for example. Jackson (1974:27) adds a further means of achieving growth, namely, referral of teachers to the professional literature.

While Robinson's definition of supervision may be acceptable as far as it goes, it appears to ignore certain crucial elements of supervision namely, the evaluation of the teacher and his work. In plain terms, supervision may result in a teacher resigning his position or being fired. Enns (1968:285), for example, in his conceptual framework of supervision, includes a staffing function which involves the assessment of competence, promotion, transfer and dismissal of teachers. In fact, the research to be reviewed shortly makes it abundantly clear that "the administration and supervision" are frequently held jointly responsible for teacher turnover and attrition rather than for professional growth.

One further aspect of supervision is worthy of comment. It seems certain that the term has both negative and positive connotations for teachers, with most of the emphasis falling on the positive aspects in the more recent educational literature. One category of positive supervisory activities nevertheless appears to be specified relatively infrequently by researchers. This is recognition. Corey (1970:8) comments that, in teaching, simple praise for a job well done is not given. McKague (1968:34) implies that the successful administrator behaves in ways which allow teachers to experience a sense of recognition. Thus he may be critical, but his concern is perceived by teachers and enhances their feelings of importance and contributes to their satisfaction.

In general, the point being made is that worthwhile work by teachers, like justice, should be recognized for what it is by other people. Campbell and Gregg (1957:309) confirm that teachers need a sense of security, a feeling of belongingness and an opportunity to participate in organizational processes, but go on to say:

> The members also need to have their contributions and achievement recognized by others, particularly by their leaders.

For Herzberg (1959:81), Recognition is an important satisfier, and Sergiovanni (1967:74) found that it contributes significantly to the high satisfaction of teachers. Technical supervision, on the other hand, was a dissatisfier in both cases.

All this is not to deny the importance of tangible and/or symbolic forms of recognition. It simply argues that certain modes of recognition fall within the parameters of supervisory practices.

Supervision defined

On the basis of the argumentation presented above, supervision may be viewed as a fundamental dimension of bureaucratic control. Supervision of teachers, as opposed to supervision by teachers, is necessarily linked to the administrative hierarchy, and often has negative valence for teachers. Control may be tightly imposed by mandate, or loosely applied by granting wide discretion to teachers.

Latterly, in the literature if not always in practice, supervisory roles appear to be almost equated with the consultative and advisory activities which emphasize staff rather than line functions, and collegial rather than authority relationships. In these respects, supervision appears to have positive valence for teachers.

Supervision may therefore be defined as :

(1) the evaluation of teachers and their work; plus

(2) the consultative and advisory activities of superordinates which are designed to promote the professional competence of teachers.

It should be noted that Recognition as a supervisory activity may be associated with either the evaluation or the promotion of teacher competence.

By delimiting supervision to refer to the supervision of teachers, it is hoped that, with regard to beginning teachers in particular, an answer may be found to the question posed by Etzioni (1969: XVII): Which mechanisms of supervision are more effective in terms of productivity and employee satisfaction?

It remains, then, to review what the literature has to suggest on this topic.

VI. SUPERVISION: RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

It was shown in the previous section that supervision is necessarily linked to administration, and that, as with decision making, control is the central issue. In brief, greater teacher control gratifies autonomy needs and leads to increased teacher satisfaction. Greater independence, it is argued here, means greater teacher control over their work and work environment, and hence increased satisfaction.

The interrelatedness of the supervision and decision making dimensions of control is clearly very strong. Schein (1970:77), for example, sees participative decision making as one aspect of supervisory strategies which, both for productivity and for the satisfaction and psychological growth of employees, are superior in many kinds of organizations. But it might equally well be argued that participative decision making could result in superior supervisory strategies having the same outcomes in terms of productivity, satisfaction and personal growth. Close supervision, as Enns (1968:296) implies, may foster resentment or dependence among teachers.

As is the case with participative decision making, it seems that teachers may not desire complete professional autonomy in respect of supervisory practices. Robinson (1966:160, 204) found that British Columbia teachers want more bureaucratization than principals in regard to specialization, rules, procedural specification and impersonality. Corwin (1970:108, 234) found that teachers appreciate certain rules, though not those imposing unbearable deadlines and regulating their work habits. Corwin, then, recommends less direct control and surveillance over teachers in the interests of good relationships.

Full-fledged professional autonomy, however, involves the central question of who has the right to make the judgment, as Hughes (Vollmer and Mills, 1966:148) indicates. Teachers may certainly oppose certain supervisory activities if the supervisor is perceived as lacking competence and expertise, or on the grounds that acceptable criteria of evaluation have not been established. In other respects, however, MacKay (1971:19), presents what appears to be a summary of most teachers' attitudes:

> . . . the argument that since evaluation is threatening to some people it should not take place at all is not reasonable. Equally unreasonable is the belief that, since governing bodies want it done, it can therefore be done effectively.

The role of the principal

Once again, a parallel can be drawn between supervision and teacher participation in decision making, since the principal remains the focal point in both areas. Andrews (1960), Downey (1961) and Robinson (1965) are three of many who agree that, when all is said and done, it is the principal who is responsible for the adequate supervision of his staff. There is also the wealth of research investigating the principal's role and role relationships, and, in particular, his supervisory and leadership styles.

Only three findings are to be mentioned here. Firstly, Anderson and Brown (1966:12), as a result of Anderson's research using Stogdill's LBDQ-12, report that in terms of teacher satisfaction, confidence in the principal, and feeling of school success, the "good" principal appears to be the one who leads his staff frequently, irrespective of the style of his leadership (p. 11).

Secondly, McNamara and Enns (1966) report McNamara's research. He used Fiedler's LPC instrument in conjunction with a new measure called the Group Atmosphere. The findings show that staff acceptance of the principal is a crucial factor in his leadership effectiveness (p. 7).

And thirdly, Parsons' (1971) study led him to recommend that persons far removed from the teacher, regardless of their supervisory skills, are unlikely to affect teacher behavior. The most influential supervision is likely that which is carried out by the principal (p. 8).

It may be concluded, then, that it is not the leadership or supervisory style of the principal that is significant so much as teacher acceptance of that style. What really matters is the rapport which exists between the principal and his staff.

Nevertheless, the principal may have to face the possibility of conflict between the evaluative and the helping functions of his supervision. MacKay (1971:18) asserts that this problem is still unresolved. If the evaluative functions are removed to superintendent or school board level, then the professionalism of teachers may suffer, as Corwin (1970:42) implies, through a reduction in the degree of their professional autonomy: the right to judge what is proper professional work is removed further from the practitioners' control. This may later become a source of dissatisfaction.

Enns (1968:295) points to another problem. He notes that staff personnel, rather than advising teachers and principals, gradually begin to tell them what they ought to be doing, and to report more and more to superiors on the work of the teachers with whom they deal. The principal's initiative (and authority) may thereby be undermined.

Finally, Lortie (1969:44) suggests that a further constraint on the principal's supervisory activities may be fear of "trouble with the union."

These problems notwithstanding, the principal remains the key figure either as the executor or the architect of supervisory practices employed at the school level. It would seem only natural for beginning teachers at least to look on him in the first instance as the major supervisory influence in both aspects of supervision, evaluation and promotion of professional competence.

A review of the research into these areas now follows. Of particular interest are those supervisory practices which may be associated with the satisfaction of beginning teachers, or with lack of it.

VII. RELATED RESEARCH INTO SUPERVISION AND THE SATISFACTION OF TEACHERS

Introduction

The main purpose of this section is to identify possible causes of satisfaction and dissatisfaction among beginning teachers in so far as they appear to be related to supervisory practices. Appropriately, Canadian studies in the area under investigation form the bulk of the research reviewed.

Research findings

It will be recalled that findings by Kuefler (1959), Formanek (1965), McGillivray (1966) and Lundrigan (1966), (reported in Section III of this chapter), all agreed that new teachers do not receive the help that they want most. Kuefler (1959:86) and Formanek (1965:150) both found that one of the most difficult problems confronting beginning teachers involved learning the extent of their authority, while McGillivray (1966:145) reported that a serious problem lay in adjusting their educational goals to those of the school. Furthermore, McGillivray's respondents did not consider principals and supervisors as "helpers", but as inspectors (p. 147).

That beginning teachers may react strongly to role conflict situations is borne out by Butler's (1961) research on the satisfaction of beginning teachers in Illinois. Butler found a direct positive relationship between job satisfaction and the retention of beginning teachers (p. 13). He received more replies concerning administrators and supervisors than any other factor in assessing reasons for liking or disliking teaching positions (p. 12). Dissatisfied teachers expressed feelings of disrespect, lack of confidence, fear, and even disgust with their administrators (p. 13). His findings show the most significant cause of job satisfaction or lack of it to be "the feelings toward the administration of the school, the feeling of freedom in the classroom or lack of it, and whether or not there was involvement in school policy making " (p. 13).

Francoeur's (1963) Quebec study, though not focused on beginning teachers as such, supports Butler in that two of the three most important sources of satisfaction were found to be supervision and freedom to plan one's work (p. 293). However, Francoeur did not investigate dissatisfaction, concentrating almost exclusively on varying degrees of satisfaction.

Browne (1965) investigated beginning teachers' perceptions of critical teaching behavior. His findings support the view that institutional expectations are transmitted to new teachers (p. 124) and that these expectations must be internalized or else considerable dissatisfaction results when classroom effectiveness is assessed (p. 132).

Both Hohn's (1964) and Ziolkowski's (1965) studies have been cited earlier. Both studies, though not confined to neophytes, are of particular interest for the present writer in that they enumerated a number of supervisory practices which principals may or may not employ. Ziolkowski also emphasized the role of the principal. Pertinent findings include the fact that teachers' visits to colleagues, demonstration lessons, and principals' visits to the classroom were not widely used even in schools judged superior (p. 137). Effective supervision, however, was hampered by a heavy administrative load, and in applicable cases, heavy teaching duties (p. 59). Ziolkowski concludes that if school boards have expectations of principals in respect of the supervision of instruction, then time and money needs to be allocated to enable them to do the job (p. 143). But he also underscores that the general supervisory style of the principal is of prime importance (p. 139). Finally, Ziolkowski observes that clerical duties, teacher resentment, teacher turnover and lack of training in supervision were not considered serious hindrances by most principals (p. 59).

Carmack's (1970) study has also been mentioned before. The interesting finding which he made is that school board members were attributing high rates of teacher turnover to inadequate administrative leadership and the recruitment of "mobility-prone" teachers, whereas heavy work loads and relatively high living costs were more significant factors in reality, according to the teachers (pp. 112-113).

Scharf (1967) makes an important observation concerning beginning teachers. Having found that teacher groups exert no social pressure on members to hold the values associated with a professional role orientation (p. 282), he suggests that the supervisory practices of the principal can help socialize new staff members into a commitment to a professional career and the adoption of professional attitudes (p. 284).

Scharf thus foresees the purpose of the present research investigation, which is to identify those supervisory practices actually employed by principals and determine their relationship with the professional satisfaction of beginning teachers.

Two other studies may be mentioned briefly. Firstly, Hrynyk's (1966:217) finding that the group of teachers exhibiting the least professionalization (sic) comprised unmarried elementary teachers with one year or less experience indicates the importance of the present study. Secondly, Daneliuk (1968:119) found a high degree of alienation in male, secondary level, teachers under twenty-four years of age, with two to four years' experience and four years of teacher education. This finding also appears significant to the present research. The new breed of teacher in Alberta has four years of professional, university education. The importance of his first year or two as a practitioner has already received heavy emphasis in this report. Daneliuk's finding appears to justify such an emphasis.

VIII. SUPERVISION: CONCLUSIONS

In light of the discursive and research literature reviewed both in this and the preceding chapter, the following groups of supervisory practices are identified as appropriate for the purposes of the present research:

1. Classroom visits, including formal and informal visits initiated by the principal, and visits initiated by the beginning teacher;

2. Conferences between the principal and the beginning teacher, formal and informal;

3. Collegial activities, including beginning teacher involvement in staff meeting discussion and staff study committees;

4. Other supportive activities, including demonstration lessons, inservice promotion, literature referrals, support for beginning teacher decisions, and explicit recognition of the beginning teacher's effort.

By investigating the supervisory practices actually employed by principals, it is hoped to establish which practices are associated with the professional satisfaction of beginning teachers.

It is fully appreciated that what a principal does and the way that he does it both have impact on beginning teachers. Evidence was presented suggesting that teacher acceptance of the principal's leadership or supervisory style is reflected in staff rapport with the principal. Beginning teacher rapport with the principal, therefore, forms an essential part of the present study.

IX. STATEMENT OF HYPOTHESES

The foregoing review of the literature has enabled a number of decision items and supervisory practices to be identified as being of importance to beginning teachers. The decision items may be grouped together into decision areas, and similarly, the supervisory practices into supervision categories.

In respect of decision making, the literature makes it clear that those teachers who enjoy a relatively high degree of involvement in relevant decision areas may be expected to be more satisfied than those whose participation is relatively low. It could be argued, then, that directional hypotheses would be more appropriate for the present study than the traditional null hypotheses. However, as Ferguson (1971:151) says, the matter is open to some controversy, and while agreeing with Ferguson that the direction of significant differences is of substantial interest, this writer presents all the research hypotheses in the null form in the interests of clarity and symmetry.

The need for clarity arises because of the introduction of Rapport with the Principal as a mediating variable in many of the hypotheses under investigation, as will be seen. The question of symmetry arises from the fact that the literature is not as persuasive in respect of supervisory practices as it is in the case of decision making involvement for directional hypothesis testing.

The following hypotheses, therefore, form the major foci of the study:

Hypothesis 1. In each of a number of decision areas, there is no significant difference between the means of the Rapport with the Principal scores of those beginning teachers who are relatively low on decision making involvement and those who are relatively high on decision making involvement.

Hypothesis 2. In each of a number of decision areas, there is no significant difference between the means of the Career Satisfaction scores of those beginning teachers who are relatively low on decision making involvement and those who are relatively high on decision making involvement.

Hypothesis 3. Of beginning teachers who are relatively low on decision making involvement in each of a number of decision areas, there is no significant difference between the means of the Career Satisfaction scores of those who are low on Rapport with the Principal and those who are high on Rapport with the Principal.

Hypothesis 4. Of beginning teachers who are relatively high on decision making involvement in each of a number of decision areas, there is no significant difference between the means of the Career Satisfaction scores of those who are low on Rapport with the Principal and those who are high on Rapport with the Principal.

Hypothesis 5. There is no significant difference between the means of the Career Satisfaction scores of those beginning teachers who are low on Rapport with the Principal and those who are high on Rapport with the Principal.

(i.e., irrespective of their decision making involvement and irrespective of their supervision experience).

Hypothesis 6. In each of a number of decision areas, no significant differences exist among the means of the decision making involvement scores of beginning teachers classified by their preferred degree of decision making involvement.

6.1 There is no significant difference between the means of the decision making involvement scores of those beginning teachers who prefer less involvement and those who find their present degree of involvement about right.

6.2 There is no significant difference between the means of the decision making involvement scores of those beginning teachers who find their present degree of involvement about right and those who prefer more involvement.

6.3 There is no significant difference between the means of the decision making involvement scores of those beginning teachers who prefer less involvement and those who prefer more involvement.

Hypothesis 7. In each of a number of decision areas, no significant differences exist among the means of the Rapport with the Principal scores of beginning teachers classified by their preferred degree of decision making involvement.

7.1 There is no significant difference between the means of the Rapport with the Principal scores of those beginning teachers who prefer less decision making involvement and those who find their present degree of involvement about right.

7.2 There is no significant difference between the means of the Rapport with the Principal scores of those beginning teachers who find their present degree of decision making involvement about right and those who prefer more involvement.

7.3 There is no significant difference between the means of the Rapport with the Principal scores of those beginning teachers who prefer less decision making involvement and those who prefer more involvement.

Hypothesis 8. In each of a number of decision areas, no significant differences exist among the means of the Career Satisfaction scores of beginning teachers classified by their preferred degree of decision making involvement.

8.1 There is no significant difference between the means of the Career Satisfaction scores of those beginning teachers who prefer less decision making involvement and those who find their present degree of involvement about right.

8.2 There is no significant difference between the means of the Career Satisfaction scores of those beginning teachers who find their present degree of decision making involvement about right and those who prefer more involvement.

8.3 There is no significant difference between the means of the Career Satisfaction scores of those beginning teachers who prefer less decision making involvement and those who prefer more involvement.

Hypothesis 9. In each of a number of decision areas, no significant differences exist among the means of the Career Satisfaction scores of beginning teachers classified both by their preferred degree of decision making involvement and by their feelings of Rapport with the Principal.

9.1 Of beginning teachers who prefer less decision making involvement, no significant difference exists between the means of the Career Satisfaction scores of those who are low on Rapport with the Principal and those who are high on Rapport with the Principal.

9.2 Of beginning teachers who find their present degree of decision making involvement about right, no significant difference exists between the means of the Career Satisfaction scores of those who are low on Rapport with the Principal and those who are high on Rapport with the Principal.

9.3 Of beginning teachers who prefer more decision making involvement, no significant difference exists between the means of the Career Satisfaction scores of those who are low on Rapport with the Principal and those who are high on Rapport with the Principal.

Hypothesis 10. In each of a number of supervision categories, there is no significant difference between the means of the Rapport with the Principal scores of those beginning teachers who are relatively low on frequency of supervision experience and those who are relatively high on supervision experience.

Hypothesis 11. In each of a number of supervision categories, there is no significant difference between the means of the Career Satisfaction scores of those beginning teachers who are relatively low on frequency of supervision experience and those who are relatively high on supervision experience.

Hypothesis 12. Of beginning teachers who are relatively low on frequency of supervision experience in each of a number of supervision categories, there is no significant difference between the means of the Career Satisfaction scores of those who are low on Rapport with the Principal and those who are high on Rapport with the Principal.

Hypothesis 13. Of beginning teachers who are relatively high on frequency of supervision experience in each of a number of supervision categories, there is no significant difference between the means of the Career Satisfaction scores of those who are low on Rapport with the Principal and those who are high on Rapport with the Principal.

Hypothesis 14. In each of a number of supervision categories, no significant differences exist among the means of the frequency of supervision scores of beginning teachers classified by their preferred frequency of supervision experience.

14.1 There is no significant difference between the means of the frequency of supervision scores of those beginning teachers who prefer less frequent supervision and those who find their present frequency of supervision about right.

14.2 There is no significant difference between the means of the frequency of supervision scores of those beginning teachers who find their present frequency of supervision about right and those who prefer more frequent supervision.

14.3 There is no significant difference between the means of the frequency of supervision scores of those beginning teachers who prefer less frequent supervision and those who prefer more frequent supervision.

Hypothesis 15. In each of a number of supervision categories, no significant differences exist among the means of the Rapport with the Principal scores of beginning teachers classified by their preferred frequency of supervision experience.

15.1 There is no significant difference between the means of the Rapport with the Principal scores of those beginning teachers who prefer less frequent supervision and those who find their present frequency of supervision about right.

15.2 There is no significant difference between the means of the Rapport with the Principal scores of those beginning teachers who find their present frequency of supervision about right and those who prefer more frequent supervision.

15.3 There is no significant difference between the means of the Rapport with the Principal scores of those beginning teachers who prefer less frequent supervision and those who prefer more frequent supervision.

Hypothesis 16. In each of a number of supervision categories, no significant differences exist among the means of the Career Satisfaction scores of beginning teachers classified by their preferred frequency of supervision experience.

16.1 There is no significant difference between the means of the Career Satisfaction scores of those beginning teachers who prefer less frequent supervision and those who find their present frequency of supervision about right.

16.2 There is no significant difference between the means of the Career Satisfaction scores of those beginning teachers who find their present frequency of supervision about right and those who prefer more frequent supervision.

16.3 There is no significant difference between the means of the Career Satisfaction scores of those beginning teachers who prefer less frequent supervision and those who prefer more frequent supervision.

Hypothesis 17. In each of a number of a number of supervision categories, no significant differences exist among the means of the Career Satisfaction scores of beginning teachers classified both by their preferred frequency of supervision experience and by their feelings of Rapport with the Principal.

17.1 Of beginning teachers who prefer less frequent supervision, no significant difference exists between the means of the Career Satisfaction scores of those who are low on Rapport with the Principal and those who are high on Rapport with the Principal.

17.2 Of beginning teachers who find their present frequency of supervision experience about right, no significant difference exists between the means of the Career Satisfaction scores of those who are low on Rapport with the Principal and those who are high on Rapport with the Principal.

17.3 Of beginning teachers who prefer more frequent supervision, no significant difference exists between the means of the Career Satisfaction scores of those who are low on Rapport with the Principal and those who are high on Rapport with the Principal.

In the following Section, an attempt is made to summarize diagrammatically the framework upon which the research hypotheses are formulated.

X. THE RESEARCH FRAMEWORK

Figure 4 summarizes the framework upon which this study is based. The theoretical framework is operationalized by considering the two major dimensions of professional autonomy, decision making involvement and supervision mechanisms. The degree of satisfaction

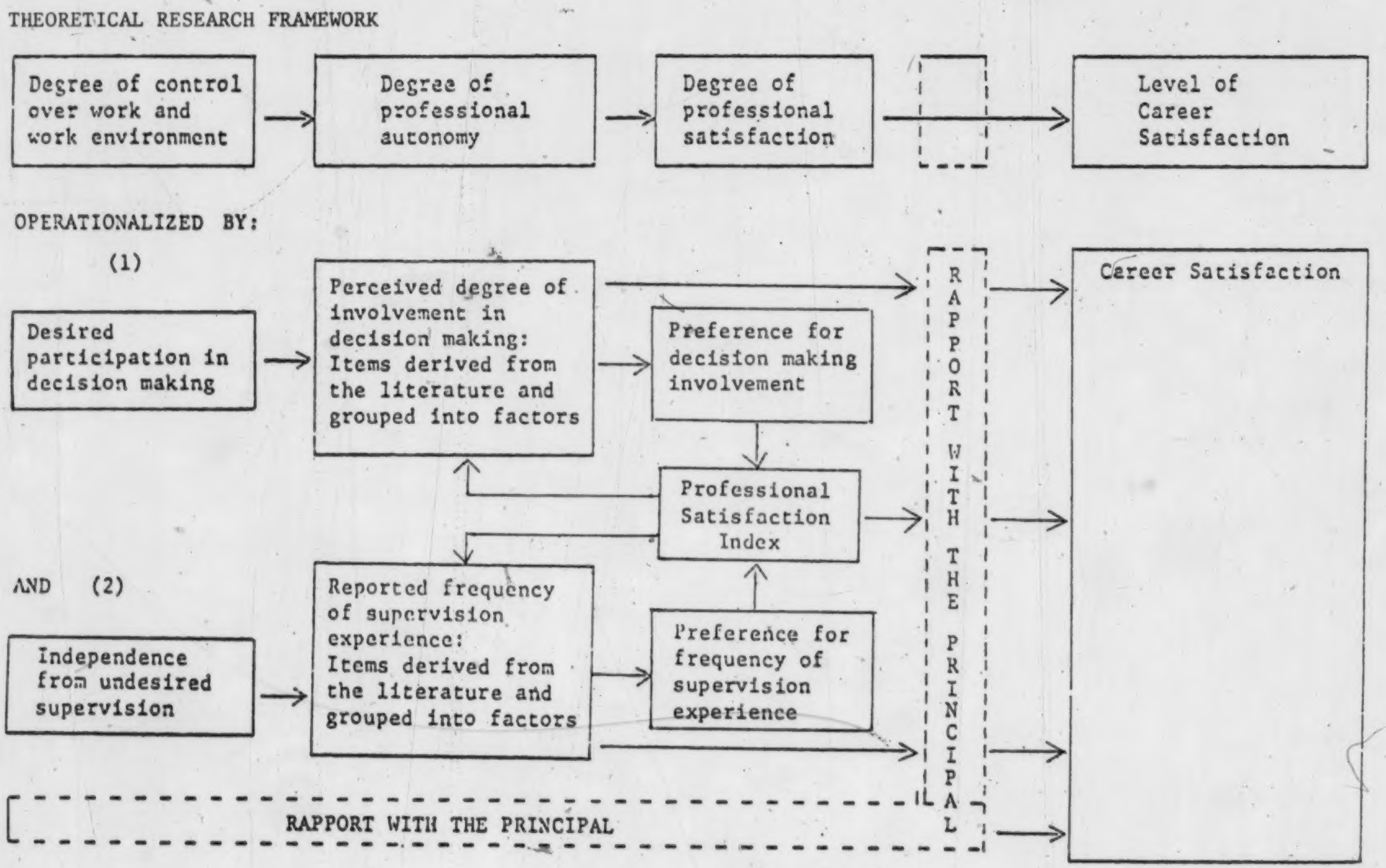
THEORETICAL RESEARCH FRAMEWORK
Degree of control over work and work environment
Degree of professional autonomy
Degree of professional satisfaction
Level of Career Satisfaction
OPERATIONALIZED BY:
(1)
Desired participation in decision making
Perceived degree of involvement in decision making: Items derived from the literature and grouped into factors
Preference for decision making involvement
Professional Satisfaction Index
AND (2)
Independence from undesired supervision
Reported frequency of supervision experience: Items derived from the literature and grouped into factors
Preference for frequency of supervision experience
RAPPORT WITH THE PRINCIPAL
RAPPORT WITH THE PRINCIPAL
Career Satisfaction

Figure 4. The Research Framework

experienced in each decision area and supervision category is indicated by the beginning teachers themselves: they may prefer less decision involvement (or supervision experience); they may find their present degree of decision involvement (or supervision experience) about right; or they may prefer more decision involvement (or supervision experience).

It is argued here that it is not just the relationship between decision involvement (or supervision experience) and Career Satisfaction (Hypotheses 2 and 11) that is important, even when Rapport with the Principal is taken into account (Hypotheses 1, 3, 4, 5, 10, 12 and 13). It is equally important to discover to what extent the decision making processes and supervisory practices actually employed in the schools are contributing to beginning teacher satisfaction or lack of satisfaction. If they contribute substantially to satisfaction, then "the administration and supervision", so often held responsible in the literature for lack of teacher satisfaction, must be exonerated in this respect, i.e., the causes of the nonsatisfaction or dissatisfaction of beginning teachers must be sought elsewhere. If, however, decision making processes and supervisory practices do contribute to nonsatisfaction or dissatisfaction, then it behoves research to reveal which decision areas and which supervision categories appear to be strongly associated with any dissatisfaction experienced.

It is also argued that the preferences expressed by beginning teachers are indicative of dissatisfaction which may result from too much involvement in decision making (or supervision) as well as dissatisfaction from too little. It is one function of the Professional Satisfaction Index (PSI) to maintain the distinctions among those beginning teachers who express dissatisfaction with their decision making involvement (or supervision experience) because they want less of it; those who are satisfied with their present degree of decision making involvement (or supervision experience); and those who express dissatisfaction with their decision making involvement (or supervision experience) because they want more of it.

The PSI[1] is thus used to categorize beginning teachers into three groups, according to their degree of satisfaction. This allows investigation of the relationships between each group and

(i) their degree of involvement in each decision making area and supervision category (Hypotheses 6 and 14);

(ii) their feelings of Rapport with the Principal (Hypotheses 7 and 15); and

(iii) their satisfaction with teaching as a career (Hypotheses 8 and 16).

Furthermore, the influence of Rapport with the Principal on the Career Satisfaction scores of each of the three groups can also be investigated (Hypotheses 9 and 17).

X. SUMMARY OF CHAPTER III

In Part I of the literature review (Chapter II), it was shown that the degree of professional autonomy enjoyed by teachers appears to depend on the amount of control which they can establish over their work and work environment. Specifically, teachers may enjoy greater control by becoming involved in desired decision making areas and/or by becoming independent of undesired supervision.

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[1] The PSI is more fully explained in Appendix C.

This Chapter first examines the central issue of control in organizations, with particular reference to school systems and the advantages and disadvantages of teacher participation in the decision making processes. It is shown that teachers do not appear to seek a full measure of professional autonomy with regard to the decision making dimension of control. On the other hand, both discursive argumentation and research findings reveal a press for greater teacher participation in decision making over a wide range of decision areas. These are explicitly identified. In general, participative decision making, when operationalized in the school, apparently leads to greater teacher satisfaction. This conclusion appears to be true of beginning teachers as well as of their more experienced colleagues.

Supervision is shown to be interrelated with decision making as the other essential dimension of control. In the traditional bureaucratic organization, supervisory practices are seen as mechanisms by which it is ensured that decisions are adequately executed in practice. In the more recent educational literature, it is noted that definitions of the term Supervision often overlook those aspects which are concerned with the evaluation of teachers: the emphasis is almost exclusively on supportive and helping supervisory practices. The evaluative functions are not neglected in this report.

It is then argued that Recognition may also be viewed as an important supervisory practice. Hence the present writer conceptualizes supervision as including the evaluative, supportive and recognition aspects.

The review of literature and research related to supervision enables identification of those supervisory practices which appear to have an important bearing on the satisfaction experienced by beginning teachers in particular.

The centrality of the principal in determining the locus of much of the decision making at the school level and his role as architect or executor of supervisory practices are both emphasized, though limitations to his legitimate power are also recognized. However, his formal position is shown to be prestigious and he is the highest ranking superordinate professional teacher within the school. Hence it is argued that the satisfaction of the new breed of beginning teacher lies primarily in his hands. The rapport which beginning teachers feel with their principal may be an essential element in their quest for satisfaction on and with the job.

Having reached this position, the Chapter concludes with a formal statement of the research hypotheses, followed by an overview of the research framework presented in diagrammatic form.

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CHAPTER IV

INSTRUMENTATION AND METHODOLOGY

I. INTRODUCTION

This Chapter outlines the instrumentation and methodology used to test the research hypotheses.

Firstly, in Section II, the two samples are described, and the generalizability of any conclusions reached by the researcher is assessed.

Secondly, as questionnaires were used to obtain data, the construction validation and revision of these instruments are detailed (Section III).

A Pilot Study was also carried out, and although it is referred to in this Chapter, it is evaluated more fully in Appendix B.

Section IV of the Chapter is devoted to an a posteriori critique of the questionnaire instruments.

The Chapter concludes with a description of the way the data are treated (Section V). The Professional Satisfaction Index (PSI) is central to much of the data analysis. The reason for this is indicated in Section V, but the PSI itself is more fully explained in Appendix C.

II. THE SAMPLES

Two sub-populations are used as samples in the study. The first sample consists of the sub-population of public school principals in the eight school jurisdictions which geographically encircle the city of Edmonton, Alberta.

After the study had been approved by each of the eight superintendencies, all the school principals were contacted by telephone to see whether they qualified for inclusion in the study. Qualifying principals had to have one or more beginning teachers on staff. Beginning teachers were defined as those full-time classroom teachers who were new to teaching and who were in their first or second year of service in January, 1975.

In fact, this procedure resulted in a sample of 71 principals whose schools are located from a few to over sixty miles from Edmonton. School staffs range in size from a few to seventy-five teachers. The range of grade combinations (Elementary-Junior High School-Senior High School) is complete.

The second sample comprises all beginning teachers on the staffs of qualifying principals. The 261 teachers involved were forewarned by the principal and/or the superintendent that a research project had received formal approval.

The actual number of teachers (N = 261) represents almost 10% of the population of beginning teachers in Alberta, and 16% of non-urban Alberta beginning teachers (LaFleur, 1975: Table 4.3). This is so because, although the Alberta teaching force is divided almost exactly between urban and non-urban centres (when urban centres are defined as having populations of 30,000 persons or more), the non-urban school systems are now employing greater numbers of beginning teachers than are urban systems.

The growing significance of non-urban teacher employment is revealed by Census statistics. For example, in 1973-74, the urban centres of Alberta employed less than 1100 beginning teachers, whereas non-urban centres employed over 1600 (LaFleur, 1975: Table 4.3). In particular, important growth areas are found in the so-called "bedroom" communities expanding rapidly on the fringes of urban centres. That this is generally the case in respect of the school jurisdictions included in this study is confirmed by the superintendents of those systems, who reported classroom teacher growth rates for 1973-74 and 1974-75 which ranged from 4% per annum (the weakest growth rate) to about 15% in three of the eight jurisdictions. It is pertinent to note that Edmonton city had declining pupil enrolments and, at most, stable classroom teacher employment figures during this same period.[1]

This study, therefore, focuses on perhaps the most significant geographical areas of beginning teacher employment in terms of numbers and growth prospects.

Furthermore, the geographical and climatic variables which may well influence the level of a teacher's satisfaction with his new job are thought not to be sources of significant variance for the respondents included in the study. Nor is there any reason to believe that the age and sex composition of the sample differs significantly from the average age and sex composition of trainee teachers leaving university to begin professional practice in non-urban centres. Alberta Census statistics show that, in 1973-74, of non-urban full-time teachers with less than two years of teaching experience, about 42% were male and 59% female.[2] In the sample of beginning teachers surveyed, of those who returned questionnaires, 40% are male and 60% female.

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[1] Source: Private communication from the superintendents' offices, March, 1975.

Nevertheless, the research findings have particular reference to the sample of beginning teachers surveyed. Hence due caution must be exercised in any attempt to generalize from them.

III. INSTRUMENTS AND METHOD

Construction of the questionnaire for qualifying principals (Appendix A)

It was felt necessary to construct a Principals' Questionnaire which would serve the purposes of this study more adequately than any developed by earlier researchers. The two areas of administrative behavior about which information is sought are the locus of decision making responsibility and the frequency with which enumerated supervisory practices are actually employed. Responses are scored on a forced choice 5-point scale.

The questionnaire consists of the following:

Part A: Personal and School Data

Part B: Decisions Using the five decision areas delineated from the literature review, specific items were formulated within each category in the following way:

Work load: items 1-6

Classroom management: items 7-10

Curriculum: items 11-13

Evaluation of pupils: items 14-16

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[2] Source: Statistics Canada. Private communication dated 21 Feb., 1975.

School rules: item 17

Part C: Supervisory practices Again the literature review provided four categories of supervision items. Within-category items are distributed as follows:

Classroom visits: items 1-6
Conferences: items 7-9
Collegial activities: items 10-15
Other supportive activities: items 16-19

All items are designed to elicit information concerning administrative behavior in regard to beginning teachers. Again, responses are scored on a forced choice 5-point scale. An invitation is included and space provided for principals to rectify any omission in either or both areas of inquiry. Space is also provided for any comment which a respondent might wish to make after completing the items in each Part.

Validation and Revision Sixteen former principals were individually asked to complete the original form of the questionnaire. Their comments led to the drafting of a second questionnaire. Comments were also received from members of the Department of Educational Administration, The University of Alberta. A number of changes were then made, and the instrument was trialled in a Pilot Study, the results of which are reported in Appendix B.

Construction of the questionnaire for beginning teachers (Appendix A)

The questionnaire for beginning teachers comprises four parts: personal data, decision making responsibility, supervisory practices, and a 40-item opinionnaire.

Part A: Personal Data

Parts B and C: Decision Areas and Supervisory Practices The items comprising decision making and supervisory practices are the same as those in the Principals' Questionnaire, re-written from the beginning teacher's point of view where necessary. In this section, the scoring is identical with that of the Principals' Questionnaire, i.e., on a forced choice 5-point scale. However, an additional scale is included for each part, namely, an index of beginning teacher satisfaction with what he reports as his actual experience in respect of each item. Thus in the case of decision making items, the teacher is asked to indicate whether he would prefer less or more involvement, or whether he feels that his reported level of involvement is about right. Similarly, with supervisory practices, the teacher is asked whether he would prefer the practice to occur more or less frequently, or whether he feels that the reported frequency of occurrence is about right. Responses are scored as follows: 1 = Prefer less; 2 = About right; 3 = Prefer more. In this way, it is possible to make some evaluation of beginning teacher satisfaction with each of the items on both the decision making and supervision dimensions.

Validation, Revision and Reliability As with the Principals' Questionnaire, the face validity of the Teachers' Qeustionnaire was improved by comments received from the Pilot Study respondents and by further refinements suggested by faculty members of the Department of Educational Administration, The University of Ablerta.

The reliability of both Part B (decision making involvement) and Part C (supervision experience) was calculated on the basis of 210 beginning teacher responses in the course of the study proper. Using the Kuder-Richardson formula 20, a measure of the internal consistency, homogeneity and scalability of the items incorporated (Ferguson, 1971: 368), the reliability coefficient of Part B is 0.91, and of Part C, 0.79.

Part B and Part C of the Teachers' Questionnaire are thus accepted as adequately valid and reliable instruments for the purposes of the study.

Part D: Rapport with the Principal and Career Satisfaction A 40-item opionnaire forms the fourth part of the beginning teacher questionnaire. These items are taken from the Purdue Teacher Opinionnaire. They are the twenty items (randomized) which load on Factor 1, Teacher Rapport with the Principal, plus the twenty items (randomized) which load on Factor 2, Satisfaction with Teaching. Factor 2 items are taken as a measure of the global satisfaction that teachers feel with teaching as a career.

Bentley and Rempel (1970:4) describe the two Factors as follows:

> Factor 1 - "Teacher Rapport with the Principal" deals with the teacher's feelings about the principal -- his professional competency, his interest in teachers and their work, his ability to communicate, and his skill in human relations.
>
> Factor 2 - "Satisfaction with Teaching" pertains to teacher relationships with students and feelings of satisfaction with teaching. According to this factor, the high morale teacher loves to teach, feels competent in his job, enjoys his students, and believes in the future of teaching as an occupation.

Scoring of responses is on a forced choice, 4-point scale: Agree -- Probably Agree -- Probably Disagree -- Disagree. When Agree is the keyed response, score weights are 4 - 3 - 2 - 1. For "reverse" items, the scoring is also reversed.

Factor scores are obtained by summing the weights which have been assigned to the item responses belonging to that Factor (Bentley and Rempel, 1970:9).

Validity and Reliability Empirical evidence supports the considerable face validity evidence with regard to the Purdue instrument's validity. Bentley and Rempel (1970:8) cite studies demonstrating its ability to discriminate sharply among different schools and also among individual teachers.

Bentley and Rempel (1970:5-6) also cite the test re-test correlations based on data for 3023 teachers as 0.88 for Factor 1 and 0.84 for Factor 2. The inter-factor correlation is 0.35, which is sufficiently low to make factor scores meaningful in discriminating between Rapport with the Principal and Career Satisfaction.

The two Factors selected are therefore considered to measure beginning teacher Rapport with the Principal and Career Satisfaction with adequate validity and reliability for the purposes of the present study.

Delivery of the questionnaires

All but one of the 71 schools were visited by the researcher in January, 1975, and the questionnaires handed personally to the principal and each beginning teacher on staff. (Questionnaires had to be posted to the one school). Confidentiality of responses was assured in a covering letter, and a stamped, addressed envelope was left with each respondent for the return of the completed instrument.

Follow-up contact

Apart from an identifying number on each questionnaire, at the conclusion of the Teachers' Questionnaire was an invitation to teachers to nominate themselves for contact in, say, three to five years' time, in the case of any follow-up research. Over 55% of teacher questionnaires returned were signed (n = 119).

This proved advantageous to the present researcher who was able to contact a number of teachers who had signed the questionnaire but inadvertently omitted to respond to certain items. Follow-up contacts were also made by telephone to a number of principals and teachers whose completed questionnaires were outstanding after ten days.

Return of questionnaires

All Principals (N = 71) returned completed and usable questionnaires, i.e., 100% of the Principals' Questionnaires were available for inclusion in the data analysis.

Of the 261 beginning teachers who qualified for inclusion in the study, 211 prompt replies were received, though one was not usable. Three more replies were able to be included during the course of the data analysis. The 213 questionnaires used represent over 81.5% of the sample of beginning teachers surveyed. An additional five completed questionnaires arrived too late for inclusion in the study.

Although omissions were made in a few cases, the researcher attempted to rectify certain of these by cross-checking principal and teacher responses, and by averaging the responses of other beginning teachers on staff. In the case of an occasional omission in the 40-item opinionnaire, an average response of 2.5 was inserted. However, where an omitted response had to do with the individual teacher's expressed preference, the item was left unanswered and excluded from the data analyses.

IV. CRITIQUE OF THE TEACHERS' QUESTIONNAIRE

Although considerable effort had been made to eliminate ambiguities and defects from the final version of the questionnaires (Appendix A), it may be appropriate to note certain comments made by teacher respondents as well as the a posteriori remarks of the researcher.

Briefly, most respondents did not comment on the questionnaire. However, some feedback was received that the anonymity of respondents was in doubt because the questionnaires were sequentially numbered. A researcher must quell such doubts. With regard to particular items, a few respondents appeared to be confused by the nominal data item, Main Teaching Level -- was it the level trained for or the level being practiced? This can be readily rectified. Secondly, some exception was taken to the item which differentiated between females who are married and those who are not. Objection was also raised to the difficulties which arise when a questionnaire is not individualized adequately for the respondent's particular situation. (It is worth noting, too, that (as anticipated) some principals found it difficult to generalize their supervisory practices into a composite treatment of "the beginning teacher" -- they note the variety of individual needs which arise when more than one beginning teacher is involved, and they would prefer to differentiate between first-year and second-year teachers).

From the researcher's viewpoint, it was noted that twenty-eight respondents failed to respond to an unnumbered item of the Teachers' Questionnaire: Whom do you regard as your primary supervisor? (Appendix A, p. 272) This item had been inserted as a result of comments made in the Pilot Study. It needs to be incorporated into the questionnaire more obviously.

The most serious defect, however, lies in the fact that teacher respondents can, in good faith, make responses which are logically inconsistent. In fact, 36 respondents did so with one or more items. Two respondents had to be excluded from all the analyses involving teacher preferences in decision making areas for this reason. For example, it is logically inconsistent to respond with 1 (Wholly the administration's decision) on the actual experience scale and with 1 (I would prefer to be less involved in the decision) on the preference scale. Similarly, it is inconsistent to respond with 5 (Wholly my decision) and 3 (I would prefer to be more involved in the decision). The same point arises in the case of the supervision items.

Two items in particular are worth commenting on. Firstly, item 5 of the Decision Areas questionnaire clearly illustrates this weakness of the instrument. Of the number of teachers who reported that decisions concerning non-teaching duties were wholly administrative decisions, 13 respondents also answered that they would prefer less involvement. It seems reasonable to suggest that these teachers want less involvement in non-teaching duties, not less involvement in decisions in which they report already having no involvement. If this is so, then more involvement in decision making about non-teaching duties would appear to be a step towards achieving their goal. Nevertheless, the 13 inconsistent responses were excluded from the data analyses.

Secondly, item 9 of the Supervisory Practices questionnaire is also troublesome as it stands. In this case, 12 teachers report that informal discussions with the principal seem to happen "8 or more times" in a half-year period. They also indicate that they would prefer it to happen more than it does.

This is quite consistent, and the responses were allowed to stand. For example, chance discussions may actually be occurring 10 times, but some teachers would prefer them to happen even more often. Hence it is the item that is in need of revision.

For a different reason, item 5 of this part of the questionnaire, "The principal drops in on me for administrative reasons," may well be discarded altogether. The purpose of its inclusion was to ensure that the distinction was made between the principal dropping in during class for purely administrative reasons and the principal dropping in to help the teacher develop professional competence (item 6). Even though principals may use the former practice at times to check up on the teacher (or teachers may feel this to be the case), it is doubtful whether it is a supervisory practice in the same sense as the other items included. If it were discarded, item 6 could be reworded to avoid confusion between administration-based and supervision-based visits of this sort by the principal.

It can be seen from the above comments that the final form of the Teachers' Questionnaire which is attached to this report as Appendix A is imperfect. It is hoped that this brief critique may benefit those who may wish to improve it for use in later research projects. It is worth reporting that no additional items were suggested by respondents -- apparently, the questionnaire is quite comprehensive.

V. TREATMENT OF THE DATA

The basic research data consist of the following:

1. From principals' responses:
   - (a) Personal and school data.
   - (b) Principals' perceptions of beginning teacher involvement in decision making.
   - (c) Principals' perceptions of the frequency with which the beginning teacher experiences supervisory practices.
2. From beginning teachers' responses:
   - (a) Personal data.
   - (b) Their own perceptions of their involvement in decision making.
   - (c) Their own perceptions of the frequency with which they experience supervisory practices.
   - (d) Their preference for involvement in each decision making item.
   - (e) Their preference for the frequency of occurrence of each supervisory practice.
   - (f) A measure of their Rapport with the Principal.
   - (g) A measure of their Career Satisfaction.

Step 1. Prior to testing the hypotheses, the principals' perceptions of beginning teachers' decision making involvement and supervision experience are compared with the beginning teachers' own perceptions. The comparison is made between the responses of all principals and of all teachers on the basis of the mean decision making involvement score and the mean supervision experience score of each group, taken item by item.

Since it is well established that principal and teacher perceptions often differ markedly, and since it is beginning teacher perceptions of reality which are used in the subsequent data analyses, it is considered sufficient for the purposes of this study to overview the difference in the two respondent groups' perceptions by a gross comparison of mean scores. Correlation coefficients are, however, reported in Appendix D.

Step 2. Although the questionnaire items are organized in what appear to be logical groups, the Pilot Study (reported in Appendix B) revealed the desirability and feasibility of categorizing the items into meaningful, discriminating factors. The second step in the treatment of the data is thus to factor analyze the responses of beginning teachers in order to establish the decision areas and supervision categories to be used in testing the hypotheses.

Step 3. Testing Hypotheses 1 and 10

Respondents are classified into low and high groups on the basis of their reported level of decision making involvement and supervision experience. The first question is: in terms of Rapport with the Principal, is there a significant difference between the two groups?

Step 4. Testing Hypotheses 2, 3, 4 and 5, and 11, 12 and 13

These hypotheses are tested following the model presented in Figure 5.

	DECISION MAKING INVOLVEMENT (EACH FACTOR) SUPERVISION EXPERIENCE (EACH FACTOR)			
	LOW		HIGH	
Rapport with the Principal	LOW (GROUP 1)	HIGH (GROUP 2)	LOW (GROUP 3)	HIGH (GROUP 4)
Career Satisfaction Scores	— — —	— — —	— — —	— — —
Mean Career Satisfaction	$\bar{X}_1$	$\bar{X}_2$	$\bar{X}_3$	$\bar{X}_4$

Figure 5. Model for hypothesis testing: A

In explanation of Figure 5, those beginning teachers classified as low on decision making involvement (or supervision experience) may be either low (below the mean) or high (above the mean) on the basis of Rapport with the Principal scores. Similarly, those high on involvement may be either low or high on Rapport with the Principal. The question is: are there significant differences between each set of the mean Career Satisfaction scores of the four groups of beginning teachers thus established?

Hence the testing pattern is as follows:

(i) $\overline{X}_1 + \overline{X}_2$ against $\overline{X}_3 + \overline{X}_4$ (Hypotheses 2 and 11);
(ii) $\overline{X}_1$ against $\overline{X}_2$ (Hypotheses 3 and 12);
(iii) $\overline{X}_3$ against $\overline{X}_4$ (Hypotheses 4 and 13).

In addition, $\overline{X}_1 + \overline{X}_3$ (all those low on Rapport with the Principal) against $\overline{X}_2 + \overline{X}_4$ (all those high on Rapport with the Principal) tests Hypothesis 5.

Step 5. Testing Hypotheses 6, 7 and 8, and 14, 15 and 16

At this stage of the data analysis, beginning teachers are classified into three groups according to whether they prefer less or more decision making involvement and supervision experience, or whether they find their present level about right.

The question is: are there significant differences among the mean scores of these three groups, (I) in respect of actual decision making involvement and supervision experience; (II) in respect of Rapport with the Principal; and (III) in respect of Career Satisfaction? Figure 6 shows this sequence.

	DECISION MAKING INVOLVEMENT PREFERRED (EACH FACTOR) FREQUENCY OF SUPERVISION EXPERIENCE PREFERRED (EACH FACTOR)		
	PREFER LESS (GROUP 1)	ABOUT RIGHT (GROUP 2)	PREFER MORE (GROUP 3)
(I) Actual Decision Making Involvement or Supervision Experience	-- -- -- --	-- -- -- --	-- -- -- --
Mean Score	$\overline{X}_1$	$\overline{X}_2$	$\overline{X}_3$
(II) Rapport with the Principal Scores	-- --	-- --	-- --
Mean Score	$\overline{X}_4$	$\overline{X}_5$	$\overline{X}_6$
(III) Career Satisfaction Scores	-- --	-- --	-- --
Mean Score	$\overline{X}_7$	$\overline{X}_8$	$\overline{X}_9$

Figure 6. Model for hypothesis testing: B

In accordance with Figure 6, it is theoretically possible to use analysis of variance and test for differences among means i.e.,

(I) among $\overline{X}_1$, $\overline{X}_2$ and $\overline{X}_3$ (Hypotheses 6 and 14);

(II) among $\overline{X}_4$, $\overline{X}_5$ and $\overline{X}_6$ (Hypotheses 7 and 15); and

(III) among $\overline{X}_7$, $\overline{X}_8$ and $\overline{X}_9$ (Hypotheses 8 and 16).

In fact, the "Prefer Less" group had to be excluded from the analysis owing to the small N, as will be seen. The only tests carried out, therefore, were between $\overline{X}_2$ and $\overline{X}_3$, $\overline{X}_5$ and $\overline{X}_6$, and $\overline{X}_8$ and $\overline{X}_9$.

Step 6. Testing Hypotheses 9 and 17

The final step is to classify Group 2 and Group 3 (Figure 6) on the basis of Rapport with the Principal scores.

Within Group 2, those beginning teachers who are low on Rapport with the Principal are compared with those high on Rapport with the Principal in terms of their Career Satisfaction. Within Group 3, a similar comparison is made (Hypotheses 9 and 17).

Reporting the Findings

Although F tests were used in the analysis of the data, the results are reported as t tests in the following chapters since tests of significance are only made between two means. Ferguson (1971:219) shows that $\sqrt{F} = t$, even when groups are of unequal size. In this report, actual numbers in each group are reported rather than degrees of freedom, since the numbers provide useful detail.

The assumptions underlying the use of F tests are, firstly, normality of the distribution of dependent variables in the population from which the samples are drawn. Reasonable departures from this assumption are thought not to affect the validity of inferences drawn from the data.

Secondly, the effects of various factors on the total variation are assumed to be additive. Ferguson (1971:219) notes that this assumption is valid in most situations.

Thirdly, homogeneity of variance is assumed. Once again, the F test is considered to be robust in respect of departures from homogeneity (Ferguson, 1971:219-220; Winer, 1971:206).

Homogeneity of variance is nevertheless tested using chi square in the present study, and results are reported. Attention is drawn to apparently gross departures from the assumption of homogeneity, but the null hypothesis is not accepted or rejected on this account.

For example, Lindquist (1953:83) points out that marked heterogeneity of variance has a small but real effect on the form of the F distribution and suggests that a higher "apparent" level of significance is desirable to offset the discrepancy which occurs. Hence the probability level may be set at 0.025 instead of 0.05 for such cases. It is noteworthy that, in the findings reported in this study, where heterogeneity of variance occurs, the probability of a Type 1 error is extremely small.

Finally, differences between means are judged to be statistically significant below the 0.05 level of probability.

Nominal data items

A series of nonparametric chi square tests making use of the nominal data items from both the Principals' and the Teachers' Questionnaires completes the data analysis. Tests were carried out in relation to each of the decision areas and supervision categories established by the factor analysis, and in relation to the other independent variable, Rapport with the Principal. Only those tests which reveal statistical significance at the 0.05 level are reported.

All data analyses were run on the IBM Computer, University of Alberta.

VI. SUMMARY OF CHAPTER IV

In this Chapter, the population samples are described and the criteria for inclusion of respondents in the study are stated. Some argument is made and evidence produced for the possibility of generalizing any research conclusions reached to populations other than the sub-population of the sample.

The instruments used in the survey are described. Their validity is discussed and evidence of their statistical reliability is cited. The method used by the researcher to gather the data is also described.

An a posteriori critique of the Teachers' Questionnaire follows, since some of its weaknesses may be readily remedied if future use is to be made of it.

The steps taken in the course of the data treatment are then detailed, the method of testing the hypotheses and reporting the findings outlined, and the level of acceptable significant difference between means established.

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CHAPTER V

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA: DECISION AREAS

1. INTRODUCTION

This Chapter begins by tabling the nominal data provided by the 213 beginning teacher respondents included in the study (Table II).

In Section III, the principals' perceptions of beginning teacher involvement in decision making and supervision experience and the teachers' own perceptions of their involvement are reported. A brief discussion accompanies Table III which allows comparison of overall mean scores, item by item.

The Factor Analysis is reported in Section IV. The decision areas and supervision categories to be used in later data analysis are established, named and interpreted. Table VI provides a summary of factor items. Inter-factor correlation coefficients are also reported (Table VII).

There follows a discussion of two of the questionnaire items eliminated in the factor analysis (Section V). This discussion focuses on comments made by questionnaire respondents.

The remaining sections of the Chapter (Sections VI-XVII) are devoted to the findings which relate to beginning teacher decision making involvement. A section is devoted to each hypothesis (Hypotheses 1 -9). Findings are briefly discussed, with references to comments made by questionnaire respondents where appropriate. Also included are two descriptive sections which report significant findings resulting from nonparametric chi square tests making use of nominal data items (Sections XI and XVI).

Finally, in Section XVIII, Table XVIII summarizes the significant findings associated with the decision making hypotheses. A statement of the broad conclusions drawn by the researcher is included.

II. COMPOSITION OF THE SAMPLE OF BEGINNING TEACHERS

Table II reveals the composition of the 213 beginning teachers who provided the data analyzed in this study. Though no comments are made here, appropriate references are made to Table II during the course of later discussions.

III. COMPARISON BETWEEN PRINCIPALS' AND BEGINNING TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS: DECISION MAKING INVOLVEMENT AND SUPERVISION EXPERIENCE

A comparison between principals' and beginning teachers' perceptions of beginning teacher decision making involvement and supervision experience is shown in Table III. The mean score of 70 principals' responses is calculated, item by item, and may be compared with the mean score of 212 beginning teacher responses to each item. One principal is excluded from this analysis as no response was received from any member of staff.

The gross figures presented in Table III suggest a very large measure of agreement between the two groups as to what really occurs in the schools. It should be noted that considerable discrepancies in perceptions become evident when intra-school comparisons are made. By averaging the responses of all the beginning teachers on the staff of each school, item by item, the composite item - response of the teachers may be compared with the response of the principal of the school. The results of such an analysis are shown as correlation coefficients in Appendix D.

In the present study, however, the focus is on beginning teachers' perceptions of reality, and their responses provide the research data.

TABLE II

COMPOSITION OF THE SAMPLE OF BEGINNING TEACHERS
(N = 213)

	ACTUAL NUMBER OF TEACHERS	PERCENT OF SAMPLE
YEARS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE		
Less than one year	114	53.5
Less than two years	99	46.5
ROUTE TO TEACHING QUALIFICATIONS		
Undergraduate B.Ed. Program	141	66.2
Professional Diploma after Degree Program	72	33.8
MAIN TEACHING LEVEL		
Elementary	106	50.0
Junior High	69	32.5
Senior High	37	17.5
(One respondent omitted)		
TEACHER TRAINING INSTITUTION		
University of Alberta	188	88.3
University of Calgary	3	1.4
University of Lethbridge	5	2.3
Other Canadian University	10	4.7
Non-Canadian University	7	3.3
TEACHING AS FIRST CHOICE AS A CAREER		
Yes	145	68.4
No	66	31.1
(Two respondents omitted)		
EXPECTATION FOR FIVE YEARS FROM NOW		
To be a classroom teacher	98	46.0
Undecided	81	38.0
Not to be a classroom teacher	34	16.0
SEX COMPOSITION		
Male	86	40.4
Female - Married	85	39.9
- Other than married	42	19.7
AGE COMPOSITION		
21-23	106	49.8
24-26	74	34.7
27-29	16	7.5
30+	17	8.0

TABLE III

ITEM BY ITEM COMPARISON OF THE MEAN SCORES OF PRINCIPALS' PERCEPTIONS OF BEGINNING TEACHER DECISION MAKING INVOLVEMENT AND SUPERVISION EXPERIENCE AND THE TEACHERS' OWN PERCEPTIONS
(N PRINCIPALS = 70; N TEACHERS = 212)

DECISION MAKING			SUPERVISORY PRACTICES		
ITEM	$\overline{X}$ PRINCIPALS :	$\overline{X}$ TEACHERS	ITEM	$\overline{X}$ PRINCIPALS :	$\overline{X}$ TEACHERS
1	1.89	1.81	1	2.41	1.78
2	2.70	2.24	2	2.57	1.54
3	1.27	1.30	3	1.50	1.29
4	4.20	4.24	4	2.17	1.43
5	2.27	1.76	5	3.67	3.29
6	1.39	1.30	6	2.57	1.40
7	3.74	3.83	7	2.74	2.07
8	2.94	2.48	8	2.66	2.62
9	4.19	4.48	9	4.01	3.72
10	3.96	4.25	10	3.71	3.09
11	4.06	3.87	11	3.19	2.27
12	4.23	4.18	12	3.56	2.08
13	2.97	2.84	13	2.30	1.22
14	3.36	3.22	14	1.53	1.05
15	3.20	3.21	15	2.79	1.49
16	3.23	3.42	16	3.70	2.93
17	2.81	2.18	17	3.07	2.21
			18	4.23	3.77
			19	3.53	2.79

IV. THE FACTOR ANALYSIS

A factor analysis was carried out on the basis of the responses of 211 usable questionnaires returned. Preliminary examination of the eigenvalues suggested the use of a five principal-factor solution following the normal varimax method of rotation (Ferguson, 1971:424) for both decision items and supervision items. However, elimination of certain items appeared inevitable, in accordance with the following decision rules:

1. Item loadings should be above 0.447 i.e., contribute 20% or more of the variance to the communality of the factor.
2. Item communalities should be above 0.300.
3. Item loadings should be decisively on one factor only.
4. The items included in any factor should fit logically into that factor.
5. Factors should be subject to meaningful interpretation.

Factor Analysis 1: Decision Making Involvement

Part B of the Teachers' Questionnaire (Appendix A) comprises 17 items designed to elicit information about the decision making involvement of beginning teachers. Respondents answered on a forced-choice 5-point scale, ranging from 1 (Wholly the administration's decision) to 5 (Wholly the teacher's decision). The results of the factor analysis are shown in Table IV.

It is clear from Table IV that item 4's contribution to Factor 5 is not only below 0.447 but is also small because the communality of item 4 is relatively small. Inclusion of the item would distort the factor mean, raising it from 2.3 to 3.0 on the basis of the item's relatively minor contribution to the factor. Item 4 was therefore excluded from further factor analysis.

TABLE IV

FACTOR ANALYSIS 1: DECISION MAKING INVOLVEMENT
(N = 211)

COMMUNALITIES		1	2	3	4	5
1	0.709	0.744	-0.076	0.305	0.016	-0.238
2	0.593	0.647	-0.090	0.371	0.170	-0.014
3	0.487	0.564	0.120	-0.146	-0.278	0.238
4	0.245	0.019	0.000	0.134	0.226	0.419
5	0.497	0.225	0.331	-0.202	-0.274	0.470
6	0.631	0.770	0.090	-0.010	0.025	0.171
7	0.620	-0.017	0.093	0.778	-0.036	-0.070
8	0.539	0.139	0.022	0.694	0.010	0.192
9	0.505	0.011	0.688	0.094	0.151	-0.008
10	0.615	-0.108	0.726	0.173	-0.088	-0.197
11	0.625	0.030	0.187	-0.085	0.698	0.308
12	0.620	-0.024	0.132	0.077	0.771	-0.036
13	0.620	-0.018	-0.124	0.083	0.025	0.772
14	0.311	0.119	0.384	0.381	0.050	0.044
15	0.523	0.351	0.452	-0.245	0.366	-0.034
16	0.353	0.028	0.538	0.001	0.183	0.172
17	0.275	0.167	0.208	0.338	0.060	0.293
	8.768	2.133	1.908	1.776	1.520	1.431
PERCENT OF COMMON VARIANCE						
	100.000	24.326	21.763	20.252	17.334	16.325
PERCENT OF TOTAL VARIANCE						
	51.578	12.547	11.225	10.445	8.941	8.420

Items 14 and 17 load neither as high as 0.447 on any factor nor decisively on a single factor. They are also excluded, therefore, from further factor analysis.

The following factors thus emerge from Table IV:

1. Teaching Load (Column 1): Decisions must be made about the assignment of teachers to teach subject matter to students grouped into classes. Beginning teachers see themselves as having little say in decisions about their assigned classes, the subject area taught, the number of class contact hours, and class size. The mean score of 211 teacher responses to the four items included in this factor is 1.7, indicating a predominantly administrative decision making area.

This is not unexpected. After all, advertisements for teachers normally specify such things as the grade level and subject area to be taught. The School Act (Alberta, 1970: Section 74) provides for a maximum number of class contact hours, unless a teacher agrees otherwise, and for negotiation between a school board and a teacher organization on this matter. Thirdly, circumstances often dictate class size, which may also become a matter for negotiation and be written into a teacher's contract.

2. Core Professional Interaction (Column 2): Decisions about teaching strategies, control relationships established with the class, and the nature and timing of student evaluation -- the teacher's characteristic professional activities -- tend to be in "mainly" the teacher's decision making domain. This is shown by the fact that the mean score of the responses to the four items comprising the factor is 3.8.

It is noted that the discarded item 14 -- the promotion or retention of students -- also loaded somewhat on this factor, which further supports the notion that the central theme of the factor is core teacher-learner interaction.

3. Student Deployment (Column 3): Decisions about the grouping of students within the school and within the classroom may be seen as organizational decisions shared between the teachers and the administration. The mean score of the responses to the two items included is 3.1.

Two discarded items -- the placement of students (item 14) and the determination of school rules and regulations (item 17) -- showed some tendency to load on this factor, suggesting again organizational-level decisions concerning student deployment.

4. Classroom Curriculum (Column 4): Decisions about the content and sequence of the classroom curriculum are very much the outcome of the teacher's decision making, the mean score of the responses to the above items being 4.1.

5. Work-Associated Tasks (Column 5): Decisions must be made about the non-teaching duties to be performed, and about the uses of and additions to the school's instructional resources. These activities may involve the teacher in expending further time and effort in behalf of students. The mean of responses to the two items is 2.3, indicating some sharing of decision making but with the administration playing the stronger role.

Item 4 (extra-curricular duties) was excluded from this factor as it did not meet the statistical criteria, even though a logical case could be presented for its inclusion. It certainly appears that the sub-population of teachers sampled have considerable influence on decisions about extra-curricular duties. One reason for this is that, in some schools, school policy is to leave it entirely up to the beginning teacher to decide whether he wants to participate in such activities or not. In other cases, busing arrangements for students preclude the possibility of extra-curricular activities at the end of the school day. However, where extra-curricular duties do occur, they are a work-associated task involving added teacher time and effort in behalf of students, which is the central idea of the items included in this factor.

Factor Analysis 2: Supervision Experience

Part C of the Teachers' Questionnaire (Appendix A) comprises 19 items eliciting information about the frequency with which enumerated supervisory practices are experienced by beginning teachers. Responses were made on a forced-choice 5-point scale, ranging from 1 (Virtually never) to 5 (Always or "8 or more times per half year period"). The results of the factor analysis are shown in Table V.

Examination of Table V reveals that items 2 and 11 tend to load on more than one factor. In view of the magnitude of the difference in the variance of the squared factor loadings (36.48 - 17.55 in the case of item 2, and 40.07 - 18.75 in the case of item 11), it was decided to retain both items as important contributors to the factor on which each loaded more heavily. An additional justification for this decision is that 0.447 was established as the minimum acceptable item loading. This criterion is met.

Item 19, though apparently an important item, loads almost equally heavily on two factors. It was not possible to establish which factor it more properly belonged to, even after seeking clarification from the six-factor and four-factor matrices. Nor did a second varimax rotation of factors based on a random sample of 61 respondents resolve the problem. The item was therefore discarded for the purposes of further factor analysis.

Item 15 meets with the statistical criteria established for inclusion of an item loading. However, it fails to meet the logical criteria established by the researcher in that (1) inclusion of the item would distort the mean of the factor on which it loads, thus reducing the viability of the factor as a unit of statistical analysis; and (2) logically, the item seems to fit more properly into Factor 10, on which it has a

TABLE V

FACTOR ANALYSIS 2: SUPERVISION EXPERIENCE
(N = 211)

COMMUNALITIES		6	7	8	9	10
1	0.474	0.067	0.601	-0.066	-0.010	0.321
2	0.585	0.419	0.604	0.043	-0.163	0.126
3	0.439	-0.014	0.625	0.137	0.168	-0.020
4	0.526	0.048	0.679	0.218	0.122	0.007
5	0.451	0.258	-0.082	0.155	0.487	0.341
6	0.609	0.216	0.197	0.062	0.023	0.720
7	0.652	0.784	0.069	0.013	0.139	0.115
8	0.582	0.750	0.089	0.093	0.021	0.042
9	0.475	0.458	-0.119	0.333	0.361	0.103
10	0.538	0.333	-0.181	0.083	0.620	0.051
11	0.622	-0.148	0.433	-0.008	0.633	-0.108
12	0.748	-0.072	0.329	0.016	0.787	-0.121
13	0.400	0.045	0.298	0.303	-0.053	0.463
14	0.590	-0.063	-0.071	0.002	-0.014	0.762
15	0.409	0.197	0.127	0.469	0.062	0.361
16	0.530	-0.007	0.119	0.686	0.200	0.069
17	0.564	-0.015	0.046	0.729	0.033	0.169
18	0.452	0.305	0.043	0.553	-0.063	-0.218
19	0.508	0.483	0.225	0.469	-0.068	0.002
	10.154	2.193	2.159	2.067	1.919	1.815
PERCENT OF COMMON VARIANCE						
	100.000	21.602	21.264	20.360	18.899	17.876
PERCENT OF TOTAL VARIANCE						
	53.440	11.544	11.363	10.880	10.099	9.553

loading of 0.361, i.e., below the 0.447 criterion. On these grounds, item 15 was eliminated from further factor analysis.

Taking into account the above argumentation, the following factors are derived from Table V:

6. Face-to-Face Discussion (Column 6): When private conferences occur, initiated either by the principal (or other primary supervisor) or by the beginning teacher, or when chance meetings result in professional or social discussion, principal-teacher interaction may be oriented towards problem solving, reaching common ground, relationship building, and so on. Although chance meetings occur more often than the more formally initiated conferences, the overall mean of the responses to the three items which comprise the factor is 2.8, indicating a frequency of 2-4 times per half-year period.

These forms of supervision occur out of class and may be individualized. From the beginning teachers' point of view, Face-to-Face Discussion may be an immediate need to enable them to cope with an unusual situation or it may simply occur incidentally in the course of their daily work.

Item 2 (consultative-advisory classroom visitations initiated by the principal) and the discarded item 19 (recognition by the principal of the teacher's work effort) both load on this item, though not decisively so. This may lend further credence to the view that the factor mainly emphasizes individual support and help for beginning teachers.

7. Formal Classroom Visitations (Column 7): Formal classroom visitations, whether initiated by the principal (or other supervisor) or by the beginning teacher, whether nominally evaluative or consultative-advisory, all appear to beginning teachers to be closely related forms of supervision. Furthermore, they experience formal supervision of their instruction infrequently, the mean score of their responses to the four items loading on this factor being 1.5, i.e., the mean is between "virtually never" and "once per half year period."

8. Promotion of Professional Development (Column 8): Promotion of inservice education, referrals to the literature, and support of beginning teacher classroom decisions all appear to contribute to the longer-term professional growth of the teacher. The mean score

of responses to these three items is 2.9, suggesting that these practices are used "occasionally", though support of classroom decisions approached the "often" mark.

As shown earlier, item 15 was eliminated from this factor on logical grounds. The discarded item 19 (recognition of the teacher's work effort) also loaded on the factor, again lending support to the idea that the factor is concerned with encouraging the professional development of the teacher over the longer term.

9. Collegial Professionalization (Column 9): Interruptions to class for administrative reasons and staff meeting discussion are seemingly inevitable elements of the beginning teacher's socialization into the profession of teaching. Association with colleagues on committees formed to study school operations and problems represents a specific means of achieving the professional socialization of beginning teachers. The mean score of responses to the four items which comprise this factor is 2.7, indicating that such supervisory practices are used "occasionally" rather than "seldom." Note, however, that beginning teacher service on staff committees seldom occurs.

10. Development of Teaching Competence by Example. (Column 10): When the principal (or other supervisor) drops in to help a beginning teacher during class, or when he arranges for the teacher to observe a demonstration lesson taught by a senior colleague or the supervisor himself, he is directly promoting teaching competence by example rather than indirectly promoting it by precept. However, beginning teachers experience these forms of supervision infrequently, the mean score of responses to the three items included in this factor being 1.4, i.e., towards the "virtually never" end of the scale.

Summary of factors derived from the factor analysis

Table VI summarizes in convenient form the composition and mean scores of the factors derived from the factor analyses.

TABLE VI

SUMMARY OF FACTORS DERIVED FROM THE FACTOR ANALYSES (N = 211)

FACTOR	DECISION ITEMS	MEAN (N = 211)
1. TEACHING LOAD	1. Assigned classes	1.89
	2. Assigned subject areas	2.31
	3. Hours of class contact	1.31
	6. Class size	1.37
		$\bar{X} = 1.7$
2. CORE PROFESSIONAL INTERACTION	9. Teaching strategies	4.49
	10. Class control relationships	4.26
	15. Student evaluation	3.15
	16. Timing of evaluation	3.44
		$\bar{X} = 3.8$
3. STUDENT DEPLOYMENT	7. Classroom student grouping	3.72
	8. School practice regarding student grouping	2.38
		$\bar{X} = 3.1$
4. CLASSROOM CURRICULUM	11. Curriculum content	3.89
	12. Curriculum sequence	4.24
		$\bar{X} = 4.1$
5. WORK-ASSOCIATED TASKS	5. Non-teaching duties	1.80
	13. Uses of and additions to instructional resources	2.87
		$\bar{X} = 2.3$

FACTOR	SUPERVISION ITEMS	MEAN (N = 211)
SUPERVISION BY ...		
6. FACE-TO-FACE DISCUSSION	7. Principal-initiated private conference	2.02
	8. Teacher-initiated private conference	2.61
	9. Chance meeting discussions with principal	3.65
		$\bar{X} = 2.8$
7. FORMAL CLASSROOM VISITATIONS	1. Principal-initiated evaluative visit	1.89
	2. Principal-initiated consultative visit	1.55
	3. Teacher-initiated evaluative visit	1.28
	4. Teacher initiated consultative visit	1.37
		$\bar{X} = 1.5$
8. PROMOTION OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT	16. Promotion of in-service education by principal	2.92
	17. Literature referrals by principal	2.13
	18. Principal's support of classroom decisions	3.73
		$\bar{X} = 2.9$
9. COLLEGIAL PROFESSIONALIZATION	5. Classroom visits for administrative purposes	3.29
	10. Teacher involvement in staff meeting discussions	3.06
	11. Use of staff committees to study school operations and problems	2.43
	12. Teacher service on staff committees	2.18
		$\bar{X} = 2.7$
10. DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHING COMPETENCE BY EXAMPLE	6. Principal drops in during class to develop competence	1.43
	13. Observation of senior colleague's lesson arranged	1.22
	14. Demonstration lesson by principal	1.04
		$\bar{X} = 1.2$

Inter-Factor Correlation Coefficients

Examination of Table VII which presents the correlation coefficients among the ten factors derived from the foregoing analyses, shows that very low correlation coefficients predominate (Guilford, 1956:145). Indeed the highest coefficient is 0.34, which accounts for no more than 11.5% of the variance between factors 7 and 10. The factors are therefore accepted as sufficiently discrete to make factor scores meaningful and discriminating.

TABLE VII

INTER-FACTOR CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS
(N = 212)

FACTOR	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	1.00									
2	0.12	1.00								
3	0.23	0.06	1.00							
4	0.03	0.30	0.04	1.00						
5	0.13	0.07	-0.01	0.08	1.00					
6	.06	.05	.15	-.08	.00	1.00				
7	.04	.09	.10	-.08	.03	0.23	1.00			
8	.07	.10	.17	.01	-.02	0.31	0.23	1.00		
9	.17	.06	.15	-.05	.21	0.31	0.22	0.20	1.00	
10	.00	.03	.14	-.06	.01	0.25	0.34	0.22	0.14	1.00

V. TWO OF THE ITEMS ELIMINATED IN THE FACTOR ANALYSIS

In so far as two of the items eliminated in the factor analysis elicited quite a number of comments from the beginning teachers surveyed, it is proposed to discuss these reactions briefly.

1. Decision Making Item 4 (The extra-curricular duties in which I am involved): Satisfied respondents apparently saw no reason to comment on this item, so that the general tenor of comments which were made was negative. That this work is at times "expected" of a teacher (especially a Physical Education teacher) and goes unappreciated by the administration, and, indeed, the community, is a source of dissatisfaction in some cases. Resentment is felt when the same people have to carry the additional work load, and particularly if evening work is also involved. Some teachers feel obliged to take on more than they want to in cases where "no-one else seems interested."

On the other hand, there appear to be times when beginning teachers regret the fact that there are no extra-curricular activities within the school.

The degree of satisfaction which the beginning teachers of the survey feel with their involvement in decisions concerning extra-curricular activities is shown by the following figures:

Number of teachers satisfied: 182
Number of teachers wanting less involvement: 4
Number of teachers wanting more involvement: 18
(9 respondents omitted)

Note that these figures omit the nine responses which were deemed logically inconsistent or left unanswered by respondents. Even so, almost 90% of the teachers surveyed express satisfaction with their present level of involvement in decisions about extra-curricular duties.

2. Supervisory Practices, Item 19 (The principal makes explicit to me his evaluation of the effort I am making...): This item probably elicited more comment than any other single item on the questionnaire. Comments were either appreciative or deprecatory, the former commending the principal for his very real and positive encouragement, the latter blaming him for being (or appearing to the teacher to be) too busy or too disinterested to bother with Recognition.

Lack of recognition is clearly affecting some teachers. "Vague, non-committal" evaluation of their work-effort is condemned. No feedback at all is found "frustrating and depressing." A principal who points out faults but "seldom if ever congratulates [the teacher] personally on any effort whatsoever" is disappointing the high hopes of at least some beginning teachers for good supervision.

The following figures are the responses of the teachers surveyed:

Number of teachers satisfied: 124

Number of teachers wanting this form of supervision to happen less frequently: 4

Number of teachers wanting this form of supervision to happen more frequently: 83

(2 respondents omitted)

One omission and one logical inconsistency occurred with respect to this item. The obvious conclusion to be drawn from these figures is that whereas almost 60% of the teachers are satisfied with the recognition they receive for the work effort which they make, almost 40%

are not satisfied and want more recognition.

An indication of why the dissatisfaction occurs has been given above, and comes from the teachers themselves.

VI. HYPOTHESIS 1 (DECISION INVOLVEMENT: RAPPORT): FINDINGS

Hypothesis 1 states: In each of a number of decision areas, there is no significant difference between the means of the Rapport with the Principal scores of those beginning teachers who are relatively low on decision making involvement and those who are relatively high on decision making involvement.

To test this hypothesis, beginning teachers were divided into low and high according to their reported level of decision making involvement in each factor. It was not thought desirable to keep numbers of teachers equal in each group ($n_1=n_2$), as this would mean that of teachers reporting the same level of involvement, some would be in the low group and some in the high group. The most convenient break in scores was therefore used as the method of dividing teachers into low and high groups, the dividing line being as close as possible to a 50:50 split. It so happens that the mean score of the 213 beginning teachers divides them into the same groups in the case of all five decision areas. Hence the low group (n_1 in Table VIII) comprises those with a decision making involvement score below the mean score, and the high group (n_2) those who score above the mean in each factor.

Table VIII presents the findings in respect of Hypothesis 1. It can be seen from Table VIII that the null hypothesis is rejected at an acceptable level of confidence in the case of beginning teacher involvement

TABLE VIII

BEGINNING TEACHERS WHO ARE LOW ON DECISION MAKING INVOLVEMENT COMPARED WITH THOSE HIGH ON DECISION MAKING INVOLVEMENT IN TERMS OF THEIR RAPPORT WITH THE PRINCIPAL

FACTOR	Homogeneity of Variance		t TEST			REJECT H_0
(DECISION MAKING)	X^2	Prob.	n_1* n_2	t	Prob.	
1 TEACHING LOAD	0.54	0.46	115 98	1.43	<0.155	No
2 CORE PROFESSIONAL INTERACTION	1.63	0.20	106 107	0.92	<0.358	No
3 STUDENT DEPLOYMENT	6.10	0.01	113 100	2.56	<0.012	Yes
4 CLASSROOM CURRICULUM	0.01	0.93	119 94	1.26	<0.211	No
5 WORK ASSOCIATED TASKS	2.41	0.12	103 110	1.00	<0.316	No

* n_1 = the low group
n_2 = the high group

The mean Rapport with the Principal score of the high group is numerically greater than that of the low group in all factors except Factor 4.

in decisions concerning Student Deployment.

As can be seen from the footnote to Table VIII, except in the case of Factor 4, the mean Rapport with the Principal score of the high decision involvement group is greater than the mean Rapport with the Principal score of the low decision involvement group.

Discussion

In general, it appears that the present level of the decision making involvement of the beginning teachers surveyed is not significantly associated with their feelings of Rapport with the Principal. However a significant relationship is shown to exist in respect of Student Deployment decisions, i.e., decisions about the school's practice regarding the grouping of students and about the grouping of students within the teacher's classroom.

Factor 3 is also significantly associated with certain nominal data categories. Discussion is, perhaps, premature at this stage. Further references to Factor 3 appear in Sections IX, XI, XVI and XVII of this Chapter.

VII. HYPOTHESIS 2 (DECISION INVOLVEMENT: CAREER SATISFACTION): FINDINGS

Hypothesis 2 states: In each of a number of decision areas, there is no significant difference between the means of the Career Satisfaction scores of those beginning teachers who are relatively low on decision making involvement and those who are relatively high on decision making involvement.

The low and high groups are the same as the groups established to test Hypothesis 1.

Table IX presents the findings in respect of Hypothesis 2. From this Table, it is clear that in two decision areas, Core Professional Interaction and Student Deployment, the null hypothesis may be rejected with a high degree of confidence.

Discussion

It will be recalled that the literature review strongly suggested that teachers high on decision making involvement would prove to be more satisfied with teaching as a career. For this reason, a directional hypothesis may have been deemed more appropriate here. It is relevant to note that a directional hypothesis would have been accepted with confidence on the same two factors, Core Professional Interaction and Student Deployment.

While the mean Career Satisfaction score of the high decision making involvement group is greater than that of the low group in each factor, in three of the five decision areas the difference is not statistically significant, contrary to what might have been anticipated.

In other words, decision making involvement appears to contribute to the satisfaction which the beginning teachers of the survey feel with teaching as a career, but not so forcefully as some of the literature implies. As will be shown, there are other powerful influences at work.

VIII. HYPOTHESIS 3 (LOW DECISION INVOLVEMENT AND RAPPORT: CAREER SATISFACTION): FINDINGS

Hypothesis 3 states: Of beginning teachers who are relatively low on decision making involvement in each of a number of decision areas, there is no significant difference between the means of the Career Satisfaction scores of those who are low on Rapport with the Principal and those who are high on Rapport with the Principal.

TABLE IX

BEGINNING TEACHERS WHO ARE LOW ON DECISION MAKING INVOLVEMENT COMPARED WITH THOSE HIGH ON DECISION MAKING INVOLVEMENT IN TERMS OF THEIR CAREER SATISFACTION

FACTOR	Homogeneity of Variance		t TEST			REJECT H_o
(DECISION MAKING)	X^2	Prob.	n_1* n_2	t	Prob.	
1 TEACHING LOAD	0.06	0.81	115 98	1.48	<0.141	No
2 CORE PROFESSIONAL INTERACTION	7.40	0.01	106 107	3.16	<0.002	Yes
3 STUDENT DEPLOYMENT	2.83	0.09	113 100	3.90	<0.002	Yes
4 CLASSROOM CURRICULUM	1.24	0.27	119 94	1.06	<0.292	No
5 WORK ASSOCIATED TASKS	2.59	0.11	103 110	0.54	<0.589	No

* n_1 = the low group

n_2 = the high group

The mean Career Satisfaction score of the high group is numerically greater than that of the low group in all five factors.

This hypothesis is tested by dividing all the beginning teachers low on decision making involvement into two groups, those low and those high on Rapport with the Principal. The mean Rapport score, which is calculated on the basis of the 213 beginning teacher respondents, is used here and throughout the data analysis to determine the low group (below the mean) and the high group (above the mean) in respect of Rapport with the Principal.

Table X presents the findings relating to Hypothesis 3: the null hypothesis is rejected in all decision areas except that relating to Classroom Curriculum decisions. However, in every factor, the mean Career Satisfaction score of those beginning teachers who enjoy high Rapport is greater than that of those who feel low Rapport with the Principal. The difference is statistically significant in four of the five decision areas.

Discussion

The effect on Career Satisfaction of dividing all those beginning teachers who are low on decision involvement on the basis of their Rapport scores can be assessed by comparing Table IX with Table X. Table IX shows that a significant difference in mean Career Satisfaction scores occurs in Factors 2 and 3, but not in Factors 1, 4 and 5. Table X shows that the high Rapport group is more satisfied with teaching as a career than the low Rapport group, significantly so in four of the five decision areas.

With regard to Factors 1 and 5, (and with less confidence, perhaps Factor 4), it is possible that the high Rapport group of Table X, by raising the mean Career Satisfaction score of the low decision

TABLE X

BEGINNING TEACHERS LOW ON DECISION MAKING INVOLVEMENT: THOSE LOW ON RAPPORT WITH THE PRINCIPAL COMPARED WITH THOSE HIGH ON RAPPORT WITH THE PRINCIPAL IN TERMS OF THEIR CAREER SATISFACTION

FACTOR	Homogeneity of Variance		t TEST			REJECT H_o
(DECISION MAKING)	X^2	Prob.	n_1* n_2	t	Prob.	
1 TEACHING LOAD	0.88	0.35	51 64	2.46	<0.016	Yes
2 CORE PROFESSIONAL INTERACTION	0.73	0.39	44 62	3.17	<0.003	Yes
3 STUDENT DEPLOYMENT	0.33	0.57	51 62	3.11	<0.003	Yes
4 CLASSROOM CURRICULUM	0.05	0.82	43 76	1.81	<0.073	No
5 WORK ASSOCIATED TASKS	0.16	0.69	47 56	2.90	<0.005	Yes

* n_1 = the low group

n_2 = the high group

The mean Career Satisfaction score of the high group is numerically greater than that of the low group in all five factors.

involvement group, may account to some extent for the non-significant difference found in Table IX between the low and high decision involvement groups. That is, Rapport may be the important variable affecting Career Satisfaction in these two (perhaps three) factors.

More light is shed on this notion when Hypothesis 4 is tested. Discussion of the relationships between Rapport and Career Satisfaction with respect to Factors 2 and 3 is also deferred to the following section.

IX. HYPOTHESIS 4 (HIGH DECISION INVOLVEMENT AND RAPPORT: CAREER SATISFACTION): FINDINGS

Hypothesis 4 states: Of beginning teachers who are relatively high on decision making involvement in each of a number of decision areas, there is no significant difference between the means of the Career Satisfaction scores of those who are low on Rapport with the Principal and those who are high on Rapport with the Principal.

The findings in respect of Hypothesis 4 are presented in Table XI. In four of the five decision areas, the null hypothesis is rejected. There are no grounds for rejecting the null hypothesis in the case of decisions about Student Deployment, but in this factor as in the other four factors, the mean Career Satisfaction score of the high Rapport with the Principal group is greater than that of the low Rapport group.

Discussion

The evidence presented in Table XI strongly supports the notion advanced in the previous section that Rapport is the important variable which accounts for the non-significant difference found in Table IX between the mean Career Satisfaction scores of those low and those high on decision making involvement in Factors 1, 4 and 5. From Table XI, it is clear

TABLE XI

BEGINNING TEACHERS HIGH ON DECISION MAKING INVOLVEMENT: THOSE LOW ON RAPPORT WITH THE PRINCIPAL COMPARED WITH THOSE HIGH ON RAPPORT WITH THE PRINCIPAL IN TERMS OF THEIR CAREER SATISFACTION

FACTOR	Homogeneity of Variance		t TEST			REJECT H_o
(DECISION MAKING)	X^2	Prob.	n_1* n_2	t	Prob.	
1 TEACHING LOAD	0.09	0.76	34 64	2.68	<0.009	Yes
2 CORE PROFESSIONAL INTERACTION	1.65	0.20	41 66	1.99	<0.049	Yes
3 STUDENT DEPLOYMENT	1.13	0.29	34 66	1.56	<0.122	No
4 CLASSROOM CURRICULUM	1.03	0.31	42 52	4.02	<0.001	Yes
5 WORK ASSOCIATED TASKS	0.01	0.91	38 72	2.28	<0.025	Yes

* n_1 = the low group

n_2 = the high group

The mean Career Satisfaction score of the high group is numerically greater than that of the low group in all five factors.

that the effect of the low Rapport group in these three factors is to reduce the mean Career Satisfaction score of all those who are high in actual decision making involvement. In this way, the mean Career Satisfaction score of the high decision making involvement group is brought closer to that of the group which is low in actual decision making involvement.

In brief summary of this point, still with respect to Factors 1, 4 and 5, the fact that there are substantial numbers of those high and those low on Rapport in both the low and high decision involvement groups accounts for the finding of non-significance when Hypothesis 1 was tested (Table VIII); and it may now be inferred that it is Rapport which is associated with Career Satisfaction (Tables X and XI) rather than actual decision making involvement (Table IX).

With respect to Factors 2 and 3, the implication is that it is the relatively high degree of decision making involvement itself which is associated with Career Satisfaction (Table IX).

However, for those who are relatively low on decision making involvement in Factors 2 and 3 (Core Professional Interaction and Student Deployment decisions), Rapport continues to be associated significantly with Career Satisfaction (Table X). For those who are relatively high on involvement in these two decision areas, the association of Rapport with Career Satisfaction is relatively weak, being just within the acceptable level of probability of 0.05 in the one case, and not statistically significant in the other (Table XI). In terms of Career Satisfaction, then, Rapport levels do not discriminate as sharply for those high on involvement in Factors 2 and 3 as they do

(i) for those high on involvement in Factors 1, 4 and 5; or (ii) for those low on involvement in Factors 2 and 3. The implication again is that relatively high decision involvement, per se, contributes to Career Satisfaction in the areas of Core Professional Interaction and Student Deployment.

That these two decision areas are difficult areas for principals to act in the best career interests of beginning teachers should not be overlooked. In the first place, there is the desire of teachers to jealously guard their prerogatives as professionally autonomous decision makers within their own classrooms. Beginning teachers may be no exception. One respondent, for example, writes appreciatively of the principal who "neither interferes nor directs or advises," and another strongly prefers "teacher responsibility for mistakes" with no interference from the principal. Decision making responsibility is implied here.

Difficulties may arise, however, when a principal correctly feels that he and his new teachers get along very well together. For he may, at the same time, be perceived by them as a threat to their professional autonomy, since he is in a position to "take advantage" of the interpersonal relationship and begin giving advice or directives to the teachers. Hence in the decision areas of Core Professional Interaction and Student Deployment, lower levels of Career Satisfaction may be experienced by beginning teachers high on decision involvement in these factors if, irrespective of Rapport feelings, the principal is perceived to be encroaching on their professional territory. This may account in part for the relatively poor discrimination, on the basis of Rapport, between the mean Career Satisfaction scores of those teachers who are highly involved in Factor 2 and Factor 3 decisions (Table XI). However, for other decision areas, and also for schools in which beginning teachers have low decision making involvement in Factors 2 and 3, what emerges from the findings so far is that Rapport is increasingly associated with the Career Satisfaction experienced by the beginning teachers surveyed.

The following section examines this association directly.

X. HYPOTHESIS 5 (RAPPORT: CAREER SATISFACTION): FINDINGS

Hypothesis 5 states: There is no significant difference between the means of the Career Satisfaction scores of those beginning teachers who are low on Rapport with the Principal and those who are high on Rapport with the Principal.

It will be recalled that Bentley and Rempel report a correlation coefficient of 0.35 between Rapport with the Principal and Career Satisfaction (supra, p.116). To ascertain that the two variables discriminate equally well among the sample of 213 beginning teachers providing the data for the present study, the correlation was measured and the correlation coefficient found to be 0.33, i.e., negligibly different from that of the Bentley and Rempel sample.

As previously mentioned, the mean Rapport score of the 213 beginning teacher respondents is used to divide the sample into low (below the mean) and high (above the mean) Rapport groups.

Table XII presents the findings in respect of Hypothesis 5. The Table shows that overall there is a highly significant difference

TABLE XII

BEGINNING TEACHERS WHO ARE LOW ON RAPPORT WITH THE PRINCIPAL COMPARED WITH THOSE WHO ARE HIGH ON RAPPORT WITH THE PRINCIPAL IN TERMS OF THEIR CAREER SATISFACTION

RAPPORT WITH THE PRINCIPAL	N	MEAN CAREER SATISFACTION SCORE	HOMOGENEITY OF VARIANCE		t TEST		REJECT H_o
			X^2	Prob.	t	Prob.	
LOW	85	61.83	0.17	0.68	3.75	0.0002	Yes
HIGH	128	66.62					

between the means of the Career Satisfaction scores of those beginning teachers who are low on Rapport and those who are high on Rapport. Those beginning teachers who enjoy relatively high levels of Rapport with their principal are significantly more satisfied with teaching as a career than those who have feelings of low Rapport.

Discussion

This finding appears to be in tune with the times. The growing emphasis on harmonious personal relationships and appropriate interpersonal skills reflects the interest in and importance attached to these matters by today's society, and, in particular, by today's youth culture. As shown in Table II, 50% of the teachers surveyed for this study are no older than twenty-three, and 85% no more than twenty-six years old. It is manifest that Rapport with the Principal is an extremely important element in the Career Satisfaction experienced by this sample of beginning teachers, irrespective of their decision making involvement or supervision experience. Yet respondents' scores to this part of the Teachers' Questionnaire (Appendix A: Part D, items 1 - 20) show that very different levels of Rapport exist in the schools. Their comments may serve to elucidate.

In regard to Rapport, there were about as many favorable comments as unfavorable. The excellence of some principals in establishing and maintaining rapport with individual beginning teachers is commended. Principals who "show interest" in, "stand behind," help and "fairly judge" beginning teachers enjoy high esteem. Those who "remain uninvolved" who seem to "skulk around the hallways a lot," who are moody, who do not foster a "sense of belonging", who "do not judge at all," or who are either not approachable or not helpful with regard to individual teachers' personal problems, do not create conditions for establishing high levels of rapport with their new teachers.

It is pertinent to note that chi square tests revealed significant differences between the mean Rapport scores of beginning teachers in three categories: the number of years the principal has been a principal, the number of years that the principal has been principal of the same school, and the expectations of teachers in relation to classroom teaching five years from now. The chi square test findings are reported in Appendix E.

Summarizing these findings, firstly, they show that 69% of principals who have spent five years or less as a principal enjoy what might be termed high Rapport schools, whereas 44% of principals with over five years' experience as a principal have high Rapport schools (Appendix E_1).

A comparison may be made by now considering those schools in which the principal has been principal of the same school for five years or less (Appendix E_2). The general similarity of the two sets of results (Appendixes E_1 and E_2) is in part due to the fact that 29 of the 70 principals of schools have been a principal for five years or less and in the same school for the period of their principalship. Perhaps the main difference in the results tabled is that whereas 44% of principals with over five years of experience as a principal have high Rapport schools (Appendix E_1), 30% of principals who have been principal of the same school for more than five years have high Rapport schools (Appendix E_2).

A third finding is that 72% of teachers who expect to be classroom teachers in five years' time are high on Rapport with the Principal. Of teachers who are undecided and of those who expect not to be classroom teachers in five years' time, half are high and half low on Rapport in each case (Appendix E_3).

The centrality of the principal in relation to the decision making involvement and supervision experience of beginning teachers was emphasized in the literature review. In the present study, the principal was nominated by 160 respondents (75%) as their primary supervisor, and 6 others nominated the principal together with their vice-principal or department head. There were 21 instances (10%) in which some supervisor other than the principal was nominated as primary supervisor. Unfortunately, 26 respondents omitted this item, as reported earlier.

It appears now, however, that the centrality of the principal as a Rapport person is not to be denied. The vagueness here is deliberate: the fact that rapport is a two-way interaction must not be ignored. The initiation of rapport between two persons may be the responsibility of either party, but its maintenance is the responsibility of both. In schools, however, it is likely that beginning teachers look to the holder of the prestigious office of principal to initiate the building of high levels of rapport.

XI. SIGNIFICANT FINDINGS RELATED TO DECISION AREAS: CHI SQUARE TEST RESULTS

This section describes the significant findings which result from testing nominal data items against the five decision area factors. Nonparametric chi square tests were applied, and the results are tabled in Appendix F.

In regard to the involvement of beginning teachers in Teaching Load decisions, a significant difference exists between the degree of involvement of those teachers with less than one year of experience, and those with less than two years. Thus 34% of the first year teachers report relatively high involvement whereas 60% of second year teachers report high involvement (Appendix F_1).

Respondents' comments related to this factor indicate that at least some teachers recognize a certain inevitability about their assignment to classes and subject areas, and about class size and class contact hours. Circumstances, especially in small schools, or school board policy, or the Alberta Teachers' Association's negotiations may dictate some of these outcomes: school level decisions may play a minor part. Or it may be, as one respondent says, that the prime interest of the first year teacher is "survival in the classroom." In the second year, more interest may be shown in how Teaching Load decisions are reached, and more involvement in the decision process sought and found.

Four nominal data items were found to be significantly associated with beginning teacher involvement in Student Deployment decisions.

Firstly, in 69% of the schools having principals who have spent

5 years or less as a principal, teachers report high levels of decision involvement on this factor. In 42% of the remaining schools, high levels of involvement are reported. From a different viewpoint, 73% of the principals of schools in which beginning teachers report low levels of involvement in Student Deployment decisions have held a principalship for more than five years (Appendix F_2). Appendix F_3 reveals broadly similar findings in respect of Student Deployment decisions and principals who have been principal of the same school for five years or less or for more than five years.

Thirdly, about 69% of those schools where the sex composition of the teaching staff is predominantly female (i.e. $<$40% male) report high levels of beginning teacher involvement in Student Deployment decisions, whereas about 29% of schools which include a substantial male element on staff (i.e. $>$40% male) have high beginning teacher involvement in this factor. From another point of view, predominantly female staffs make up 78% of the schools in which beginning teachers report high levels of Student Deployment decision involvement (Appendix F_4).

Fourthly, 63% of beginning teachers in the Elementary grades are high on involvement in this factor. At both Junior and Senior High School levels, about 30% of beginning teachers are highly involved in Student Deployment decisions. Overall, 67% of beginning teachers who are high on this factor teach at the elementary level (Appendix F5).

It is worth noting that, of the total sample of 213 respondents who provided the research data, about 40% are female elementary school teachers. It is possible, therefore, that beginning teachers who are female, who teach elementary grades, and whose principals have spent five years or less as a principal enjoy relatively high levels of involvement in Student Deployment decisions. It may be, too, that their combined contribution accounts for the fact that the Student Deployment decision area was significantly related to Rapport with the Principal when Hypothesis 1 was tested (Table VIII), since 69% of principals with less than five years as a principal have what were termed high Rapport schools (Section X of this Chapter).

Turning now to involvement in Classroom Curriculum decisions, a trend is revealed showing that beginning teachers at Senior High School level have more say in these matters than their Junior High School counterparts, who, in turn, are more involved in the decision process than beginning teachers of Elementary grades. Thus 57% of beginning teachers in Senior High School report being high on involvement in this factor, compared with 51% of the Junior High School and 36% of Elementary level beginning teachers (Appendix F_6).

A similar trend is noted with regard to beginning teacher involvement in decisions about Work - Associated Tasks. In this case, 78% of beginning teachers at Senior High School level, 49% of those at Junior High School level, and 43% of those taking Elementary school grades report a high level of involvement (Appendix F_7).

One explanation may apply to both of the above findings. Not only may status and prestige be accorded to Senior High School teachers, but also a greater recognition of their specialist expertise, and hence of their need or right to be treated as budding autonomous professionals.

XII. HYPOTHESIS 6 (PROFESSIONAL SATISFACTION: ACTUAL DECISION INVOLVEMENT): FINDINGS

Hypothesis 6 states: In each of a number of decision areas, no significant differences exist among the means of the decision making involvement scores of beginning teachers classified by their preferred degree of decision making involvement.

As previously mentioned (Chapter IV, Section V), very few respondents prefer less decision making involvement in any of the five decision areas: 4 respondents in Factor 1, 3 in Factor 2, 1 in Factor 3, 7 in Factor 4, and 5 in Factor 5. Of these, five responses qualify for inclusion with the "Satisfied" group in this study, since Satisfied is defined as being not more than 33 1/3% dissatisfied in the Factor under investigation.

In effect, therefore, Hypotheses 6, 7 and 8 compare only those beginning teachers who find their present degree of decision making involvement about right with those who prefer more involvement in decision making.

The purpose of the present hypothesis (Hypothesis 6.2) is to discover whether any significant relationship exists between beginning teachers' feelings of Professional Satisfaction and their present level of decision making involvement. More specifically, are the professionally satisfied teachers (i.e., those who find their present level of decision making involvement about right) actually more involved in decision making than the professionally dissatisfied teachers (i.e., those who want more involvement in decision making)?

In order to answer this question, the Professional Satisfaction Index (PSI) was created, and respondents were given a PSI scale score for each of the five decision making areas. As indicated above, the Satisfied group is defined arbitrarily as being no more than 33 1/3% dissatisfied on the factor under investigation, whether the dissatisfaction is expressed by respondents as a preference for less or as a preference for more decision making involvement. Appendix C details the method of scoring responses on the PSI scale. Certain assumptions are made explicit and the reason why the total number of beginning teachers included in the data analysis varies from factor to factor is explained.

Table XIII presents the findings relevant to Hypothesis 6.2. In Table XIII, it is demonstrated with considerable confidence (1) that those beginning teachers who are professionally satisfied have a mean decision making involvement score significantly different from the mean decision making involvement score of those who want more involvement in decision making; and (2) that the mean decision making involvement score of the satisfied group is significantly greater than that of the dissatisfied group in all five factors.

Discussion

These findings justify the conceptualization of professional satisfaction as the gratification of professional autonomy needs or wants in respect of the decision making dimension.

They also appear to support the conceptualization of Professional Satisfaction as distinct from Career Satisfaction. Reference to Table IX clarifies this point. When the degree of decision making involvement

TABLE XIII

BEGINNING TEACHERS WHO ARE PROFESSIONALLY SATISFIED COMPARED WITH THOSE WHO WANT MORE DECISION MAKING INVOLVEMENT IN TERMS OF THEIR PRESENT DEGREE OF DECISION MAKING INVOLVEMENT

FACTOR (SATISFACTION WITH DECISION MAKING)	Homogeneity of Variance		t TEST			REJECT H_o
	X^2	Prob.	n_1* n_2	t	Prob.	
1 TEACHING LOAD	2.90	0.09	60 145	4.63	<0.0001	Yes
2 CORE PROFESSIONAL INTERACTION	7.94	0.005	166 36	4.17	<0.0001	Yes[a]
3 STUDENT DEPLOYMENT	0.74	0.39	112 96	6.77	<0.0001	Yes
4 CLASSROOM CURRICULUM	5.33	0.02	168 36	6.97	<0.0001	Yes
5 WORK ASSOCIATED TASKS	0.16	0.69	91 102	5.26	<0.0001	Yes

* n_1 = the 'Satisfied' group

n_2 = the 'Want More' group

[a] Supra p. 126

The mean decision making involvement score of the Satisfied group is greater than that of the Want More group in all five factors.

is tested directly against Career Satisfaction (Hypothesis 2), in three decision areas no significant difference is found in the mean Career Satisfaction scores of those beginning teachers low and those high on decision making involvement. Thus decision making involvement associates relatively weakly with Career Satisfaction when compared to its association with Professional Satisfaction as revealed in Table XIII.

XIII. HYPOTHESIS 7 (PROFESSIONAL SATISFACTION: RAPPORT) FINDINGS

Hypothesis 7 states: In each of a number of decision areas, no significant differences exist among the means of the Rapport with the Principal scores of beginning teachers classified by their preferred degree of decision making involvement.

As explained in the previous Section, it is feasible to compare only two groups, namely those who are satisfied with their present level of decision making involvement, and those who want more involvement.

The findings relating to the hypothesis tested (Hypothesis 7.2) are presented in Table XIV. The null hypothesis is again confidently rejected in each decision area, and again, the mean Rapport with the Principal score is significantly greater for the professionally satisfied group than that of the dissatisfied group in all five factors.

Discussion

These findings indicate that those beginning teachers who felt professionally satisfied also had stronger feelings of Rapport than those who were professionally dissatisfied, whatever area of decision making involvement is considered.

TABLE XIV

BEGINNING TEACHERS WHO ARE PROFESSIONALLY SATISFIED COMPARED WITH THOSE WHO WANT MORE DECISION MAKING INVOLVEMENT IN TERMS OF THEIR RAPPORT WITH THE PRINCIPAL

FACTOR (SATISFACTION WITH DECISION MAKING)	Homogeneity of Variance		t TEST			REJECT H_o
	X^2	Prob.	n_1* n_2	t	Prob.	
1 TEACHING LOAD	4.49	0.03	60 145	2.78	<0.006	Yes
2 CORE PROFESSIONAL INTERACTION	3.63	0.06	166 36	2.73	<0.007	Yes
3 STUDENT DEPLOYMENT	8.18	0.004	112 96	3.64	<0.001	Yes[a]
4 CLASSROOM CURRICULUM	6.10	0.01	168 36	2.51	<0.013	Yes
5 WORK ASSOCIATED TASKS	11.45	<0.001	91 102	4.94	<0.0001	Yes[a]

* n_1 = the 'Satisfied' group [a]Supra p. 126
n_2 = the 'Want More' group

The mean Rapport with the Principal score of the Satisfied group is greater than that of the Want More group in all five factors.

XIV. HYPOTHESIS 8 (PROFESSIONAL SATISFACTION: CAREER SATISFACTION): FINDINGS

Hypothesis 8 states: In each of a number of decision areas, no significant differences exist among the mean Career Satisfaction scores of beginning teachers classified by their preferred degree of decision making involvement.

It is explained in Section XII that only Hypothesis 8.2 can be tested, given the small *N* of beginning teachers forming the "Prefer Less" group. Hypothesis 8.2 compares those beginning teachers who are satisfied with their present level of decision making involvement with those who want more involvement in terms of their Career Satisfaction.

The findings relating to Hypothesis 8.2 are presented in Table XV. Table XV shows that the null hypothesis is accepted in two decision areas, Classroom Curriculum and Work - Associated Tasks. Although the mean Career Satisfaction score of the professionally satisfied group is greater than that of the dissatisfied group in all factors, a statistically significant difference between means occurs in three of the five factors.

Discussion

Two points are worth making in respect of these findings. In the first place, a strong argument may have been made to support a directional rather than a null hypothesis in the case of Hypothesis 8.2. It seems logical to argue that beginning teachers who are satisfied with their degree of involvement in decision making are likely to be more satisfied with teaching as a career than those who are not. Moreover, there is an abundance of evidence to support this argument as shown in the lit-

TABLE XV

BEGINNING TEACHERS WHO ARE PROFESSIONALLY SATISFIED COMPARED WITH THOSE WHO WANT MORE DECISION MAKING INVOLVEMENT IN TERMS OF THEIR CAREER SATISFACTION

FACTOR (SATISFACTION WITH DECISION MAKING)	Homogeneity of Variance		t TEST			REJECT H_o
	X^2	Prob.	n_1* n_2	t	Prob.	
1 TEACHING LOAD	2.72	0.10	60 145	2.19	< 0.030	Yes
2 CORE PROFESSIONAL INTERACTION	0.30	0.58	166 36	2.09	< 0.039	Yes
3 STUDENT DEPLOYMENT	0.23	0.63	112 96	2.35	< 0.020	Yes
4 CLASSROOM CURRICULUM	0.25	0.62	168 36	0.95	< 0.343	No
5 WORK ASSOCIATED TASKS	0.09	0.76	91 102	0.10	< 0.934	No

* n_1 = the 'Satisfied' group
n_2 = the 'Want More' group

The mean Career Satisfaction score of the Satisfied group is numerically greater than that of the Want More group in all five factors.

erature and research reviewed in Chapter III.

The first point, therefore, is that, had a directional hypothesis been applied in the case of Hypothesis 8.2, significant differences between means would again have been found in the three factors, Teaching Load, Core Professional Interaction and Student Deployment, and no significant difference between means would have been demonstrated in the case of Factors 4 and 5.

The second point may either follow from this or be made in its own right. It is that the findings presented in Table XV, when read in conjunction with those presented in Table IX (supra p. 149), lend only partial support to the view that a greater degree of desired participation in decision making contributes substantially to the felt satisfaction of beginning teachers with teaching as a career. That is to say, in view of the findings of no significant difference between means in respect of beginning teacher satisfaction with decisions about Classroom Curriculum and Work-Associated Tasks (Table XV), it may be argued that the case for participative decision making appears to be overstated in the literature reviewed, at least for the beginning teacher sample used in the present study.

XV. HYPOTHESIS 9 (PROFESSIONAL SATISIFACTION AND RAPPORT: CAREER SATISFACTION): FINDINGS

Hypothesis 9 states: In each of a number of decision areas, no significant differences exist among the means of the Career Satisfaction scores of beginning teachers classified both by their preferred degree of decision making involvement and by their feelings of Rapport with the Principal.

As explained in Section XII, too few beginning teachers state a preference for less decision making involvement to warrant their inclusion in the analysis. Therefore only Hypotheses 9.2 and 9.3 are tested.

Hypothesis 9.2 concerns only beginning teachers who find their present degree of involvement in each decision area about right. These teachers are divided into low and high on the basis of their Rapport with the Principal scores. The low and high Rapport groups are then compared in terms of their Career Satisfaction scores. The null hypothesis is that no significant difference exists between the mean Career Satisfaction scores of the two groups.

Hypothesis 9.3 is similar, the one difference being that it concerns only beginning teachers who prefer more decision making involvement in each decision area.

The findings relating to Hypothesis 9.2 are presented in Table XVI, and those relating to Hypothesis 9.3 are presented in Table XVII.

In Table XVI, the null hypothesis is rejected in three of the five decision areas, though in all five factors, the mean Career Satisfaction score of the high Rapport group is greater than that of the low Rapport group.

In Table XVII, the null hypothesis is rejected in all five decision areas. Again, the mean Career Satisfaction score of the high Rapport group is greater than that of the low Rapport group in all factors.

Discussion

As it is presented, Table XVI shows that, when all professionally satisfied beginning teachers were divided on the basis of their feelings

TABLE XVI

BEGINNING TEACHERS WHO ARE PROFESSIONALLY SATISFIED: THOSE LOW ON RAPPORT WITH THE PRINCIPAL COMPARED WITH THOSE HIGH ON RAPPORT WITH THE PRINCIPAL IN TERMS OF THEIR CAREER SATISFACTION

FACTOR (SATISFACTION WITH DECISION MAKING)	Homogeneity of Variance		t TEST			REJECT H_o
	X^2	Prob.	n_1* n_2	t	Prob.	
1 TEACHING LOAD	1.58	0.21	16 44	2.17	<0.035	Yes
2 CORE PROFESSIONAL INTERACTION	0.01	0.92	60 106	2.64	<0.009	Yes
3 STUDENT DEPLOYMENT	0.01	0.94	33 79	0.94	<0.349	No
4 CLASSROOM CURRICULUM	0.07	0.79	62 106	2.14	<0.034	Yes
5 WORK ASSOCIATED TASKS	0.26	0.61	23 68	0.66	<0.515	No

*n_1 = the low Rapport with the Principal group
n_2 = the high Rapport with the Principal group

The mean Career Satisfaction score of the high Rapport group is numerically greater than that of the low Rapport group in all five factors.

TABLE XVII

BEGINNING TEACHERS WHO WANT MORE DECISION MAKING INVOLVEMENT: THOSE LOW ON RAPPORT WITH THE PRINCIPAL COMPARED WITH THOSE HIGH ON RAPPORT WITH THE PRINCIPAL IN TERMS OF THEIR CAREER SATISFACTION

FACTOR (SATISFACTION WITH DECISION MAKING)	Homogeneity of Variance		t TEST			REJECT H_o
	X^2	Prob.	n_1* n_2	t	Prob.	
1 TEACHING LOAD	0.88	0.35	64 81	2.99	<0.004	Yes
2 CORE PROFESSIONAL INTERACTION	0.16	0.69	20 16	2.42	<0.021	Yes
3 STUDENT DEPLOYMENT	0.56	0.46	50 46	4.27	<0.0001	Yes
4 CLASSROOM CURRICULUM	1.52	0.22	18 18	4.14	<0.0003	Yes
5 WORK ASSOCIATED TASKS	1.70	0.19	53 49	4.53	<0.0001	Yes

*n_1 = the low Rapport with the Principal group
n_2 = the high Rapport with the Principal group

The mean Career Satisfaction score of the high Rapport group is greater than that of the low Rapport group in all five factors.

of Rapport, a significant difference exists between the low and high Rapport groups in terms of Career Satisfaction in three of the five decision areas.

It was shown in Table IX (Hypothesis 2) that the actual level of decision making involvement is associated more weakly with Career Satfaction than the literature suggests. In Table XV (Hypothesis 8), the level of satisfaction with actual decision making involvement is less strongly associated with Career Satisfaction than may have been hypothesized. Table XVI (Hypothesis 9.2) now shows that, even within the group of beginning teachers who are satisfied with their decision making involvement, Rapport with the Principal is significantly associated with Career Satisfaction in three out of five decision areas. That these findings obtain in three factors, even though the Rapport scores of this group are relatively high to begin with (Hypothesis 7, Table XIV), appears to support the view that, for these beginning teachers, Rapport with the Principal is more importantly associated with Career Satisfaction than either their decision making involvement or their Professional Satisfaction.

Table XVII concerns beginning teachers who are professionally dissatisfied in that they want more decision making involvement. If it were really this state of dissatisfaction which was the strong influence on Career Satisfaction, then no significant difference between the mean Career Satisfaction scores of the low and high Rapport groups would be expected. In Table XVII, this null hypothesis is rejected with considerable confidence in all five factors. Thus Table XVII supports the view that it is not so much the dissatisfaction experienced from lack of decision making involvement that is importantly associated with beginning teacher Career Satisfaction as the level of Rapport with the Principal.

Although not tested for significance in this analysis, it is worth noting that the mean Career Satisfaction score of the high Rapport group of dissatisfied teachers (Hypothesis 9.3) is slightly greater than the mean Career Satisfaction score of the high Rapport group of professionally satisfied teachers (Hypothesis 9.2) in Factor 3, and substantially greater in Factors 4 and 5. This again suggests that Career Satisfaction may be less dependent upon satisfaction with the degree of decision making involvement than suggested in the literature reviewed, at least in the case of the beginning teachers of the present sample. In addition, the mean Career Satisfaction score of those satisfied with their decision making involvement is significantly greater than the mean Career Satisfaction score of those wanting more involvement, in perhaps one decision area, as already demonstrated and discussed (Hypothesis 8, Table XV).

Before concluding this section, the significant finding in relation to Core Professional Interaction decisions (Table XVI) merits some comment. It will be recalled that, in an earlier discussion (Section IX), it was suggested that beginning teachers may regard Core Professional Interaction decisions as their professional domain, and that even principals with whom the teachers feel high Rapport may nevertheless be seen as a threat in this decision area. The finding in Table XVI suggests that once beginning teachers are satisfied with their role as Core Professional Interaction decision makers, then Rapport becomes a further element in the degree of satisfaction which they feel with teaching as a career.

This does not appear to be the case when it comes to decisions about Student Deployment and Work - Associated Tasks. In the former decision area, Professional Satisfaction itself (which results from high decision making involvement, as Table XIII shows) is significantly associated with Career Satisfaction (Table XV). In the latter decision area, Professional Satisfaction is not significantly associated with Career Satisfaction (Table XV). Among the professionally dissatisfied, however, in this factor as in all five decision areas (Table XVII), feelings of high Rapport appear to compensate in terms of Career Satisfaction for lack of actual decision making involvement.

XVI. SIGNIFICANT FINDINGS RELATED TO SATISFACTION WITH DECISION MAKING INVOLVEMENT: CHI SQUARE TEST RESULTS

This section describes the two significant findings which result from testing nominal data items against beginning teachers' satisfaction with decision making involvement as revealed by the Professional Satisfaction Index (Appendix C). Nonparametric chi square tests were used to determine whether significant relationships existed for each of the decision areas. The results of these tests are shown in Appendix G.

A significant association is found to exist between satisfaction with beginning teacher involvement in Student Deployment decisions and teachers' expectations to be or not to be classroom teachers five years from now. Thus 63% of those beginning teachers who expect to be classroom teachers in five years' time are satisfied with their degree of involvement in Student Deployment decisions, whereas 29% of those who do not expect to be in the classroom five years from now are satisfied (Appendix G1). However, it should be noted that the group who do not expect to be classroom teachers in five years' time comprises 34 teachers or 16% of the total sample (Table 11).

Of the total sample, 38% are undecided whether to be classroom teachers or not in five years' time. Thirty-seven of the 80 teachers are male and 43 are female. About half of them are satisfied with their involvement in Student Deployment decisions. From questionnaire respondents' comments, it appears that teaching is still regarded as a transitory occupation by a number. They are trying teaching out: if they do not like it, they intend to move out of the profession. However, whether this attitude is more or less common today than in the past is not known.

A further significant finding was made in respect of beginning teacher satisfaction with involvement in decisions about Work - Associated Tasks, based on the sex composition of the sample. From the Table presented in Appendix G_2, it can be seen that 58% of all male respondents are satisfied with their involvement in this decision area, whereas about 40% of all female respondents are professionally satisfied in this regard.

Turning now to comments made by beginning teacher respondents to the questionnaire, it appears that some dissatisfaction exists with teacher involvement in Teaching Load decisions. For example, some teachers complain that they are taking subjects for which they have not been trained to teach and/or that they are not teaching at the grade level appropriate to their training. Others find class size and supervision of additional classes troublesome. Still others find their first year of teaching expensive in terms of time, money, and nervous energy. However, no significant association was found to exist between satisfaction on this factor and any of the nominal data items included in the questionnaires.

Finally, it is worth referring to a broad area of decision making involvement not specified in the questionnaires. The matter arises because of the favorable comments from principals and beginning teachers in respect of using committees of teachers as decision bodies, and because no unfavorable reaction to this practice was reported. How widespread the practice is, however, has not been established.

XVII. CONCLUSIONS: THE DECISION AREAS

The foregoing analyses, based on the data provided by 213 beginning teacher questionnaire respondents, pave the way for what appear to be some important conclusions.

Table XVIII presents the findings relating to Hypotheses 1-9 in summary form. In analyzing the data, in order to test each hypothesis, the sample of beginning teachers was classified either into Low and High groups (Hypotheses 1-5) or into Satisfied and Want More groups (Hypotheses 6-9), as recorded in Table XVIII. The dependent variable is also shown in the case of each hypothesis. In conjunction with Table XVIII, the conclusions may be summarized broadly as follows:

(1) The conceptualization of Professional Satisfaction as a state of satisfaction resulting from gratification of the need of or want

TABLE XVIII

SIGNIFICANT FINDINGS IN RESPECT OF HYPOTHESES 1-9 IN SUMMARY FORM

BASIS OF CATEGORIZATION OF SAMPLE	PRESENT DEGREE OF DECISION MAKING INVOLVEMENT				RAPPORT	PROFESSIONAL SATISFACTION RESULTING FROM DECISION MAKING INVOLVEMENT				
HYPOTHESIS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9.2	9.3
DEPENDENT VARIABLE	RAPPORT	CAREER SATISFACTION				ACTUAL INVOLVEMENT IN DECISIONS	RAPPORT	CAREER SATISFACTION		
FACTOR			*	*	*				*	*
1 TEACHING LOAD			✓	✓	✓✓	✓✓	✓		✓	✓
2 CORE PROFESSIONAL INTERACTION		✓	✓	✓		✓✓	✓		✓	✓
3 STUDENT DEPLOYMENT	✓	✓	✓			✓✓	✓	✓		✓✓
4 CLASSROOM CURRICULUM				✓		✓✓	✓		✓	✓✓
5 WORK-ASSOCIATED TASKS			✓	✓		✓✓	✓			✓✓

KEY:
* Low and High Rapport with the Principal groups compared
✓ Significant difference found between means (< 0.05)
✓✓ Highly significant difference found between means (< 0.0005)

for professional autonomy appears to be justified for the decision making dimension of professional autonomy. High levels of involvement of beginning teachers in decision making are significantly associated with feelings of Professional Satisfaction (Hypothesis 6, Table XVIII).

(2) The conceptualization of Professional Satisfaction as but one of a number of elements of Career Satisfaction also appears to be justified, as far as decision making involvement is concerned.

(3) Apart from the Core Professional Interaction and Student Deployment decision areas, the actual level of decision making involvement does not appear to contribute to Career Satisfaction as substantively as the discursive and research literature reviewed suggests, at least for the sample of beginning teachers surveyed in the present study (Hypothesis 2, Table XVIII).

(4) However, the Professional Satisfaction experienced as a result of decision making involvement does appear to contribute to Career Satisfaction in three of the five decision areas. (Hypothesis 8, Table XVIII).

It seems, therefore, that, for the sample of beginning teachers surveyed in the present study, higher levels of Rapport with the Principal may be associated with greater teacher participation in decision making, and that this could account for higher levels of Career Satisfaction being associated with participative decision making.

(5) In the decision areas investigated, and in its own right, Rapport with the Principal appears to be overwhelmingly associated with the Career Satisfaction experienced by the beginning teachers surveyed.

In every significant finding reporting the results of the analyses in all five decision making areas, and in every finding of no statistical significance, those high on Rapport had a mean Career Satisfaction score greater than that of those low on Rapport (Hypotheses 3, 4, 5, 9.2 and 9.3, Table XVIII).

(6) In the two decision areas of Core Activity Interaction and Student Deployment, decision making involvement is significantly associated with beginning teacher Career Satisfaction (Hypothesis 2).

These two decision areas may pose difficult situations for the principal (Section IX).

It is important not to overlook exceptions to the general trends revealed in the findings. To exemplify, a further examination of the association between Factor 3 and Career Satisfaction seems desirable.

It will be recalled that Student Deployment decisions incorporate two questionnaire items, the grouping of students within the teacher's classroom and the school's practice regarding the grouping of students. It can be seen from Table XVIII that a significant association exists between the present level of involvement in these decisions and not only Rapport with the Principal, but also Career Satisfaction (Hypotheses 1 and 2). Of beginning teachers low on involvement in this decision area, those who are high on Rapport are significantly more satisfied with teaching as a career than those who are low on Rapport (Hypothesis 3). However, this does not obtain for those who are highly involved in this decision area - for them, the level of Rapport makes no significant difference (Hypothesis 4).

The finding under Hypothesis 6 shows that those beginning teachers who are satisfied with their actual involvement in Student Deployment decisions are, in fact, highly involved in those decisions, while the Hypothesis 8 finding indicates that the feelings of Professional Satisfaction which result from this involvement contribute significantly to Career Satisfaction.

The finding for Hypothesis 9.2 is, therefore, somewhat repetitive in the case of this factor: the finding of no significance here shows that the Career Satisfaction of these teachers is not significantly associated with Rapport. It is their Professional Satisfaction rather than their Rapport which contributes to Career Satisfaction in this decision area.

There is a marked change, however, when the professionally dissatisfied group is divided on the basis of Rapport (Hypothesis 9.3). In this case, those beginning teachers high on Rapport are significantly more satisfied with their career of teaching than those who are low on Rapport.

(7) It was found that almost no beginning teachers wanted less involvement in any decision area. Though considerable satisfaction was expressed in relation to present levels of decision making involvement, there also remained a considerable degree of professional

dissatisfaction associated with lack of beginning teacher involvement in decisions affecting their work and work environment. This finding is presented in bar chart form in Appendix C. If, therefore, the Professional Satisfaction of Beginning teachers merits the attention of educational administrators, there is "room for improvement" in the decision making dimension.

An active policy directed at the involvement of beginning teachers in the whole range of decision areas not only promotes Professional Satisfaction, but perhaps more importantly, may create conditions which foster higher levels of Rapport with the Principal.

XVIII. SUMMARY OF CHAPTER V

In this Chapter, details of the composition of the sample of 213 beginning teachers are shown (Table II). Principals' and beginning teachers' perceptions of the real decision making involvement and supervision experience of the teachers surveyed are then compared (Section III).

The data provided by the beginning teachers were subjected to factor analysis. The results are tabled in Section IV, and the factors are established, named, and interpreted. Table VI summarizes the ten factors included in subsequent analyses. Inter-factor correlations are also reported (Table VII).

A brief discussion follows on two of the items eliminated in the factor analysis. These items elicited relatively numerous comments from questionnaire respondents (Section V).

The findings related to the hypotheses which are concerned with the degree of beginning teacher decision making involvement and satisfaction with decision making involvement are reported and discussed in turn. Interspersed with these seven Sections of this Chapter are a report on Hypothesis 5 (which deals with Rapport with the Principal and Career Satisfaction, irrespective of the degree of decision making involvement), and two descriptive sections related to the significant findings resulting from nonparametric chi square tests making use of nominal data items (Sections XI and XVI).

The Chapter concludes with a summary table of the significant findings associated with the decision making hypotheses. Included here is a statement of the conclusions drawn by the researcher in respect of the decision making dimension of Professional Satisfaction.

CHAPTER VI

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA: SUPERVISION CATEGORIES

1. INTRODUCTION

In the first four sections of Chapter V, the composition of the sample of 213 beginning teachers is tabled, principals' and beginning teachers' perceptions of the latter's supervision experience are briefly discussed, and the supervision categories used in the following analyses are established by factor analysis and explained.

This Chapter follows the pattern set in Chapter V. A section of the Chapter is devoted to each of the hypotheses which relate to the supervision experience of beginning teachers (Hypotheses 10 - 17). Findings are briefly discussed, with appropriate references to comments made by questionnaire respondents. Two sections report the significant findings of nonparametric chi square tests which make use of nominal data items (Sections VI and XI). A summary of two sets of chi square test findings is included in Section XI.

Section XII then summarizes the significant findings associated with the hypotheses which concern the five supervision categories. The broad conclusions drawn by the researcher as a result of the findings are also stated in Section XII.

II. HYPOTHESIS 10 (SUPERVISION FREQUENCY: RAPPORT): FINDINGS

Hypothesis 10 states: In each of a number of supervision categories, there is no significant difference between the means of the Rapport with the Principal scores of those beginning teachers who are relatively low on frequency of supervision experience and those who are relatively high on frequency of supervision experience.

Beginning teachers are divided into two groups, those low on supervision experience and those high on supervision experience, in the same manner as the low and high decision making involvement groups are established (Chapter V, Section VI). It so happens that the mean response of the 213 questionnaire respondents provides the same dividing point except in the case of Factor 7. Here the mean score is 1.52 (Table VI). Had this mean been 1.49, then it would be true to say that the low group always consists of those respondents who score below the mean, and the high group of those who score above the mean. The decision not to use the actual mean in the case of Factor 7 was made in the interests of numerically balanced groups, as 42 respondents scored 1.50 on this factor.

Table XIX presents the findings related to Hypothesis 10. The null hypothesis is rejected with confidence in the case of all five supervision categories. In addition, the mean Rapport with the Principal score of the high supervision experience group is higher than the mean Rapport score of the low supervision experience group in all supervision categories.

Discussion

In terms of Rapport with the Principal, it is clear from these findings that there is, generally speaking, a very significant difference between those beginning teachers who had relatively frequent supervision experience and those who received relatively infrequent supervision.

TABLE XIX

BEGINNING TEACHERS WHO ARE LOW ON SUPERVISION EXPERIENCE COMPARED WITH THOSE HIGH ON SUPERVISION EXPERIENCE IN TERMS OF THEIR RAPPORT WITH THE PRINCIPAL

FACTOR	Homogeneity of Variance		t TEST			REJECT H_o
(SUPERVISION)	X^2	Prob.	n_1* n_2	t	Prob.	
6 FACE-TO-FAGE DISCUSSION	13.41	< 0.001	110 103	5.16	< 0.0001	Yes[a]
7 FORMAL CLASSROOM VISITATIONS	0.57	0.45	97 116	2.27	< 0.025	Yes
8 PROMOTION OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT	15.22	< 0.001	96 117	8.29	< 0.0001	Yes[a]
9 COLLEGIAL PROFESSIONALIZATION	0.67	0.41	92 121	2.48	< 0.014	Yes
10 DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHING COMPETENCE BY EXAMPLE	14.65	< 0.001	144 69	4.36	< 0.0001	Yes[a]

* n_1 = the low group
n_2 = the high group

[a] Supra p. 126

The mean Rapport with the Principal score of the high group is greater than that of the low group in all five factors.

The former group enjoyed significantly greater feelings of Rapport than the latter, and this obtains whatever supervision category is considered.

III. HYPOTHESIS 11 (SUPERVISION FREQUENCY: CAREER SATISFACTION): FINDINGS

Hypothesis 11 states: In each of a number of supervision categories, there is no significant difference between the means of the Career Satisfaction scores of those beginning teachers who are relatively low on frequency of supervision experience and those who are relatively high on frequency of supervision experience.

The findings which relate to Hypothesis 11 are presented in Table XX. The null hypothesis is rejected in four of the five supervision categories. In all five categories, however, the mean Career Satisfaction score of those beginning teachers who are relatively high on frequency of supervision experience is greater than the mean Career Satisfaction score of the low experience group.

Discussion

Table XX reveals a significant association between the frequency of supervision experience and Career Satisfaction for the beginning teachers surveyed in four of the five supervision categories. Moreover the relationship is such that those beginning teachers who received relatively frequent supervision are more satisfied with teaching as a career than those receiving relatively infrequent supervision.

The exception is supervision by Formal Classroom Visitations. It is understandable, perhaps, that formally arranged visits to the

TABLE XX

BEGINNING TEACHERS WHO ARE LOW ON SUPERVISION EXPERIENCE COMPARED WITH THOSE HIGH ON SUPERVISION EXPERIENCE IN TERMS OF THEIR CAREER SATISFACTION

FACTOR	Homogeneity of Variance		t TEST			REJECT H_o
(SUPERVISION)	X^2	Prob.	n_1* n_2	t	Prob.	
6 FACE-TO-FACE DISCUSSION	1.63	0.20	110 103	3.11	<0.003	Yes
7 FORMAL CLASSROOM VISITATIONS	0.49	0.48	97 116	0.86	<0.390	No
8 PROMOTION OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT	1.39	0.24	96 117	2.85	<0.005	Yes
9 COLLEGIAL PROFESSIONALIZATION	3.20	0.07	92 121	2.87	<0.005	Yes
10 DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHING COMPETENCE BY EXAMPLE	3.76	0.05	144 69	2.07	<0.040	Yes

* n_1 = the low group
n_2 = the high group

The mean Career Satisfaction score of the high group is numerically greater than that of the low group in all five factors.

classroom by the beginning teacher's primary supervisor are less likely to be significantly associated with Career Satisfaction than other forms of supervision. After all, formal visitations from the beginning teachers' point of view may emphasize the evaluative aspects of the teacher and his work (supra p. 139), whereas the other categories emphasize the helping aspects of supervision.

Nevertheless, the mean Career Satisfaction score of those who experience more formal visitations is greater, but not significantly so, than the mean Career Satisfaction score of those formally visited less frequently. The importance of this fact is reinforced by the substantial demand for more experience of this form of supervision among the beginning teachers surveyed. This is shown in Appendix C, Figure 3, and is therefore not repeated here.

There are also the comments made by questionnaire respondents which relate to Factor 7. One respondent states that there is "no need" for the principal to visit the classroom to evaluate teaching competence, and another reports better (and misleading) behavior by the class while the teacher is being formally evaluated. However, most of the comments made have to do with a felt lack of experience of this supervision category.

Table XX, therefore, reveals significant and important trends which associate levels of Career Satisfaction with the frequency with which the five forms of supervision are experienced by the beginning teachers of the sample.

IV. HYPOTHESIS 12 (LOW SUPERVISION FREQUENCY AND RAPPORT: CAREER SATISFACTION): FINDINGS

Hypothesis 12 states: Of beginning teachers who are relatively low on frequency of supervision experience in each of a number of supervision categories, there is no significant difference between the means of the Career Satisfaction scores of those who are low on Rapport with the Principal and those who are high on Rapport with the Principal.

It will be recalled that the mean Rapport with the Principal score of the 213 beginning teachers surveyed divides beginning teachers into two groups throughout the study. The low group all have a Rapport score below the mean, while the high group all score above the mean.

Table XXI presents the findings related to Hypothesis 12. The null hypothesis is rejected in all supervision categories except supervision by Face-to-Face Discussion. In all categories, however, the mean Career Satisfaction score of the high Rapport group is greater than the mean Career Satisfaction score of the low Rapport group.

Discussion

A strong association between the frequency of supervision experience and Rapport with the Principal was shown in Table XIX (Hypothesis 10). Table XXI shows that among all those beginning teachers who are low on supervision experience, Rapport is associated significantly with Career Satisfaction in all supervision categories except supervision by Face-to-Face Discussion. Again the association is such that those having high Rapport are also significantly more satisfied with teaching as a career than those low on Rapport.

TABLE XXI

BEGINNING TEACHERS LOW ON SUPERVISION EXPERIENCE: THOSE LOW ON RAPPORT WITH THE PRINCIPAL COMPARED WITH THOSE HIGH ON RAPPORT WITH THE PRINCIPAL IN TERMS OF THEIR CAREER SATISFACTION

FACTOR	Homogeneity of Variance		t TEST			REJECT H_o
(SUPERVISION)	X^2	Prob.	n_1* n_2	t	Prob.	
6 FACE-TO-FACE DISCUSSION	1.58	0.21	59 51	1.38	<0.171	No
7 FORMAL CLASSROOM VISITATIONS	0.79	0.37	45 52	2.00	<0.049	Yes
8 PROMOTION OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT	0.02	0.89	61 35	2.56	<0.013	Yes
9 COLLEGIAL PROFESSIONALIZATION	1.77	0.18	42 50	2.32	<0.023	Yes
10 DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHING COMPETENCE BY EXAMPLE	1.08	0.30	73 71	1.98	<0.050	Yes

* n_1 = the low group
n_2 = the high group

The mean Career Satisfaction score of the high group is numerically greater than that of the low group in all five factors.

There is nothing in the data to suggest why the Face-to-Face Discussion factor does not fit the overall pattern revealed in Table XXI. It appears that, if chance and informal meetings between principal and beginning teacher are occurring relatively infrequently anyway, then, when they do occur, feelings of Rapport are not significantly associated with the feelings which the teacher has about his teaching career. In such circumstances, perhaps Rapport is given too little opportunity to grow. Among beginning teachers who find informal contacts occurring relatively frequently, however, Rapport was significantly associated with Career Satisfaction, as the following section shows.

Because those who are low on experience of Face-to-Face Discussion were significantly less satisfied with teaching as a career (Table XX), the possibility remains that frequency of occurrence of this factor is, per se, the important element in Career Satisfaction as far as the low experience group is concerned. It is noteworthy that there are not only teacher respondents but a number of principals also who highly commend "informal" modes of supervision.

V. HYPOTHESIS 13 (HIGH SUPERVISION FREQUENCY AND RAPPORT: CAREER SATISFACTION): FINDINGS

Hypothesis 13 states: Of beginning teachers who are relatively high on frequency of supervision experience in each of a number of supervision categories, there is no significant difference between the means of the Career Satisfaction scores of those who are low on Rapport with the Principal and those who are high on Rapport with the Principal.

The findings related to Hypothesis 13 are shown in Table XXII. The null hypothesis is rejected with confidence in all categories except supervision by the Promotion of Professional Development. In all five supervision categories, moreover, the mean Career Satisfaction score of the high Rapport group is greater than that of the low Rapport group.

Discussion

The general pattern of significant association between Rapport and Career Satisfaction is again apparent in Table XXII. Among those beginning teachers who experience supervision relatively frequently, those who are also high on Rapport are more satisfied with teaching as a career than those low on Rapport. The one exceptional category is supervision which is directed towards the longer term professional growth of the teachers surveyed (Factor 8).

It appears, then, that while those beginning teachers who are high on Factor 8 are significantly more satisfied than those who are low on this factor in terms of Career Satisfaction (Table XX), their feelings of Rapport were not a significant influence in this respect. This suggests the possibility that relatively frequent experience of Promotion of Professional Development was, of itself, an important element in beginning teacher Career Satisfaction. In the case of the other four supervision categories, Rapport appears as an intervening variable for those beginning teachers who were high on actual supervision experience.

TABLE XXII

BEGINNING TEACHERS HIGH ON SUPERVISION EXPERIENCE: THOSE LOW ON RAPPORT WITH THE PRINCIPAL COMPARED WITH THOSE HIGH ON RAPPORT WITH THE PRINCIPAL IN TERMS OF THEIR CAREER SATISFACTION.

FACTOR	Homogeneity of Variance		t TEST			REJECT H_o
(SUPERVISION)	X^2	Prob.	n_1* n_2	t	Prob.	
6 FACE-TO-FACE DISCUSSION	5.08	0.02	26 77	3.17	< 0.003	Yes
7 FORMAL CLASSROOM VISITATIONS	2.17	0.14	40 76	3.20	< 0.002	Yes
8 PROMOTION OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT	0.15	0.70	24 93	1.24	< 0.218	No
9 COLLEGIAL PROFESSIONALIZATION	3.68	0.06	43 78	2.65	< 0.010	Yes
10 DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHING COMPETENCE BY EXAMPLE	4.63	0.03	12 57	3.63	< 0.001	Yes

* n_1 = the low group

n_2 = the high group

The mean Career Satisfaction score of the high group is numerically greater than that of the low group in all five factors.

VI. SIGNIFICANT FINDINGS RELATED TO SUPERVISION CATEGORIES: CHI SQUARE TEST RESULTS

This section describes the significant findings which result from testing nominal data items against the five supervision experience factors. Nonparametric chi square tests were applied. The results are tabled in Appendix H.

With regard to Formal Classroom Visitations a significant difference exists between the mean frequency score of those beginning teachers supervised under principals who have been a principal for five years or less and those whose principals have held a principalship for more than five years. In 66% of schools with principals who have spent five years or less as a principal, teachers experience a relatively high frequency of classroom visitations, whereas 39% of schools with principals who have spent more than five years as a principal are relatively high on this factor (Appendix H_1). Broadly similar differences are apparent between principals who have been principal of the same school for five years or less and those who have been principal of their present school for more than five years. In this test, however, the level of probability is 0.086, and the findings are therefore not included in Appendix H.

Two nominal data items were found to be associated significantly with the Collegial Professionalization factor. Firstly, 49% of first-year teachers compared with 66% of second-year teachers report a high frequency of occurrence in this factor (Appendix H_6). However, whether these figures reflect a possible change on the part of some teachers (e.g., they may be less defensive in the second year), or a change on the part of colleagues (e.g., they may be more accepting in the case of second-year teachers), or both, cannot be established from the available data. On the one hand, comments by questionnaire respondents deprecate staff attitude to staff meetings, to establishing educational goals, to teaching, and to acceptance of responsibility for non-teaching duties and committee work. On the other hand, as many, if not more, comments applaud the help which more experienced teachers give the beginning teachers of the sample.

The second item which is associated significantly with the frequency of supervision by Collegial Professionalization is the grade level of the beginning teacher's classes. Thus 66% of the teachers of Elementary grades report a high frequency of supervision in this factor, compared to 55% of Junior High School beginning teachers and 32% of Senior High School beginning teachers (Appendix H_3). If increasing subject-area specialization tends to isolate one more from one's colleagues on staff, this may partly explain these differences.

Three significant findings were made with respect to the Development of Teaching Competence by Example. Firstly, the number of years the principal has been a principal is a significantly associated item: 48% of beginning teachers in schools where the principal has spent five years or less as a principal have relatively frequent experience of this form of supervision, whereas 24% of beginning teachers in schools where the principal has had more than five years' experience as a principal are high on this factor (Appendix H_4).

Secondly, the number of years the principal has been principal of the same school is associated with the frequency with which the beginning teachers surveyed experience Development of Teaching Competence by Example (Appendix H_5). The relationships are similar to those reported in Appendix H_4.

The third finding has to do with beginning teacher expectations for five years from now. Thus 38% of those beginning teachers who expect to be classroom teachers in five years' time report relatively high experience of the development of their teaching competence by example. Of beginning teachers who expect not to be in the classroom in five years' time, 15% are relatively high on experience of this form of supervision. One third of the "undecided" group are high on this factor (Appendix H_6).

It is worth recalling that the Development of Teaching Competence by Example was, generally, an infrequently used category of supervision (Table VI, supra p. 141). It is also worth noting that the beginning teachers who report relatively high experience on this factor make up less than one third of the total sample (Appendix H_6).

VII. HYPOTHESIS 14 (PROFESSIONAL SATISFACTION: ACTUAL SUPERVISION FREQUENCY): FINDINGS

Hypothesis 14 states: In each of a number of supervision categories, no significant differences exist among the means of the frequency of supervision scores of beginning teachers classified by their preferred frequency of supervision experience.

The purpose of Hypothesis 14 is to discover whether those beginning teachers who find their present frequency of supervision about right are more frequently or less frequently supervised than the dissatisfied group of teachers. Theoretically, dissatisfaction may reflect too much or too little supervision experience. In this study, however, there are too few respondents who prefer less frequent supervision to enable a "Prefer Less" group to be treated by statistical analysis: 3 respondents in Factor 6 want less frequent supervision, 4 in Factor 7, 2 in Factor 8, 16 in Factor 9, and 1 in Factor 10. Of these, 21 responses (including 14 in Factor 9) qualify as "Satisfied" in this study, since "Satisfied" is arbitrarily defined as being not more than $33\frac{1}{3}\%$ dissatisfied in the supervision category. Assumptions and the method of establishing satisfied and dissatisfied groups are explained in Appendix C.

In fact, therefore, Hypotheses 14, 15 and 16 compare only those beginning teachers who find their present frequency of supervision about right with those who prefer more frequent supervision.

The findings relating to the present hypothesis (Hypothesis 14.2) are presented in Table XXIII. The null hypothesis is rejected with considerable confidence in three supervision categories. It is accepted in the two categories, Formal Classroom Visitations and Development of Teaching Competence by Example. In addition, those beginning teachers who find their present frequency of supervision about right also actually experience four categories of supervision more frequently than those who want more frequent supervision. In the case of Factor 10, the mean actual experience score of the Satisfied group is slightly lower than that of the dissatisfied group.

TABLE XXIII

BEGINNING TEACHERS WHO ARE SATISFIED WITH THEIR SUPERVISION EXPERIENCE COMPARED WITH THOSE WHO WANT MORE SUPERVISION EXPERIENCE IN TERMS OF THEIR PRESENT FREQUENCY OF SUPERVISION EXPERIENCE

FACTOR (SATISFACTION WITH SUPERVISION)	Homogeneity of Variance		t TEST			REJECT H_o
	X^2	Prob.	n_1* n_2	t	Prob.	
6 FACE-TO-FACE DISCUSSION	0.57	0.45	163 46	3.62	<0.0004	Yes
7 FORMAL CLASSROOM VISITATIONS	1.17	0.28	113 93	1.42	<0.160	No
8 PROMOTION OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT	0.13	0.72	154 55	5.77	<0.0001	Yes
9 COLLEGIAL PROFESSIONALIZATION	1.60	0.21	130 55	5.89	<0.0001	Yes
10 DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHING COMPETENCE BY EXAMPLE	1.11	0.29	93 110	0.00	<0.972	No

* n_1 = the 'Satisfied' group
n_2 = the 'Want More' group

The mean frequency of supervision experience score of the Satisfied group is greater than that of Want More group in Factors 6, 8 and 9. In Factor 7, the $\overline{X}$ frequency of supervision scores of the two groups are 1.564 and 1.464 respectively.
In Factor 10, the $\overline{X}$ frequency of supervision scores of the two groups are 1.236 and 1.239 respectively.

Discussion

In order to clarify the importance of the above findings to this research project, some recapitulation is desirable.

It will be recalled that, theoretically, Professional Satisfaction in the supervision dimension results from gratification of the need of or want for independence from undesired supervision. Professionally dissatisfied persons may feel dissatisfied because they experience too much supervision, too close supervision, too impersonal supervision, too harsh supervision, supervision by unqualified persons, and so on. Operationalized for the purposes of investigating the Professional Satisfaction of beginning teachers, Professional Satisfaction in this study is measured in terms of the frequency of beginning teacher supervision experience (Figure 4, supra p. 96). The implication is that professionally satisfied teachers and professionally dissatisfied teachers are measurably different in terms of their actual supervision experience. Specifically, the need of or want for independence from undesired supervision is demonstrated by those teachers who express dissatisfaction because they want less frequent supervision.

It was shown above that 26 factor responses (out of a possible 1065) comprised the total expression of need or want for independence from undesired supervision on the part of the 213 questionnaire respondents providing the present research data. In addition, only 5 of these responses were classed as expressions of professional dissatisfaction, since, in the other 21 cases, respondents were not more than $33\frac{1}{3}\%$ dissatisfied in any factor. In other words, Professional Satisfaction (i.e., the feeling of satisfaction which results from gratification of the need of or want for independence from undesired supervision, and which finds expression as a preference for less frequent supervision experience) is almost non-existent among the beginning teachers surveyed.

A weakness has thus been revealed in the research project, since, by definition, those supervisory practices which might be desired by respondents, are precluded from the data analysis. In other words, the research project has proceeded as if all supervision categories are undesired forms of supervision: professionally satisfied respondents are deemed to be those beginning teachers expressing satisfaction with a frequency of supervision experience which is necessarily relatively low since it has to reflect independence from undesired supervision.

These considerations do not invalidate the conceptualization and definition of Professional Satisfaction. For example, had the questionnaire asked respondents to indicate those supervisory practices which they perceive to be undesired, then findings relating to the responses to those items could be meaningfully interpreted in terms of Professional Satisfaction. As this did not occur in the present investigation, the conceptualization and operationalization of Professional Satisfaction proves to be methodologically inapplicable in the supervision dimension in this study.

Conceptually, moreover, it is possible that, for beginning teachers at least, there is a "saturation point" level of frequency in respect of any supervisory practice beyond which independence from supervision becomes desired. Until the saturation point is reached, the supervisory practice is not undesired. Therefore, if the sample of beginning teachers surveyed has not experienced supervision frequently enough for the saturation point to have been reached, under such circumstances applying the notion of Professional Satisfaction to further findings would be inappropriate.

On the other hand, it may be that the teachers surveyed are, in fact, not autonomy-minded, but submissive, dependent, and anxious to experience all forms of supervision with relatively high frequency. At this stage in their career, feelings of uncertainty or insecurity associated with the first year or so of teaching practice may outweigh feelings of need or want for independence from supervision, especially if it is perceived as supportive supervision. If this were so, then the conceptualization and operationalization of Professional Satisfaction would become logically inapplicable to the findings since no need of or want for independence from supervision would exist among respondents.

In sum, therefore, the ~~findings~~ reported neither validate the conceptualization of Professional Satisfaction as operationalized for this study in the supervision dimension, nor disconfirm the possibility of its existence as an element of, but distinct from, Career Satisfaction.

It is emphasized that the methodological problems encountered in this study in no way invalidate the findings pertaining to beginning teacher supervision experience. Clearly it is not appropriate to interpret further findings in terms of Professional Satisfaction, but equally clearly, they can be meaningfully interpreted in terms of the satisfaction which the beginning teachers surveyed express with the frequency of their supervision experience. The remaining Tables of findings are, therefore, interpreted in this light.

As shown in Table XXIII, Face-to-Face Discussion, Promotion of Professional Development and Collegial Professionalization are supervision categories in which a significant difference exists between satisfied and dissatisfied beginning teachers. But the evidence also shows that the difference is such that those who are satisfied actually experience these three forms of supervision significantly more frequently than their dissatisfied colleagues. In other words, although they are experiencing satisfaction, it is not Professional Satisfaction as defined in this study.

In respect of Formal Classroom Visitations and Development of Teaching Competence by Example (Factors 7 and 10), Table XXIII also shows that classification of the sample of beginning teachers surveyed on the basis of their preferred frequency of supervision experience reveals no significant difference between the Satisfied and Want More groups in terms of their present frequency of supervision experience. The footnote to the Table reports that, in Factor 7, the mean frequency of supervision score of the Satisfied group is somewhat greater than that of the Want More group, but that in Factor 10, the mean frequency score of the Satisfied group is slightly less than that of the Want More group. These findings not only demonstrate the possibility of a weakness in the operationalization of Professional Satisfaction (as discussed earlier in this section), but pose an immediate problem for the research methodology.

The problem arises because the hypotheses yet to be tested categorize the sample into Satisfied and Want More groups on the basis of their preferred frequency of supervision experience. But in Factors

7 and 10, no significant difference between the two groups has been demonstrated. Now suppose that a significant finding were made. No meaning could be attached to it because, although it is known that the two groups being compared are not different on preferred frequency of supervision, it is not known on what variable they are to be categorized as different. In preference to not testing hypotheses based on the existence of a difference in the preferred frequency of supervision, or to testing the hypotheses and reporting findings to which no meaning can be attached, supplementary tests with respect to Factors 7 and 10 may be incorporated into the overall research design as the following paragraphs explain.

The decision to define "Satisfied" teachers as not more than $33\frac{1}{3}\%$ dissatisfied in the factor being investigated was an arbitrary decision made by the researcher. The decision was reached after consideration of two points: first, it was felt that the responses provided by the vast majority of the beginning teachers surveyed would thereby be incorporated in the data analysis and research findings; and second, it was felt that it would be unreasonable to define as "Dissatisfied" respondents who were only partly dissatisfied in the factor under investigation.

Nevertheless, the researcher originally had the option of making use of only the responses of fully satisfied beginning teachers and completely dissatisfied beginning teachers. These groups would comprise those who score "0" and "+12" respectively on the Satisfaction Scale explained in Appendix C. Exercising this option at this stage of the data analysis opened up the possibility that resultant findings would enable Factors 7 and 10 to be meaningfully included in the testing of the remaining hypotheses. Two supplementary tests of Hypothesis 14 were therefore run, using only fully satisfied and completely dissatisfied respondents.

The findings which relate to these two supplementary tests are presented below (Table XXIV). It is noteworthy that $n > 30$ for all groups used in this analysis.

TABLE XXIV

FULLY SATISFIED BEGINNING TEACHERS COMPARED WITH COMPLETELY DISSATISFIED BEGINNING TEACHERS IN TERMS OF THEIR PRESENT FREQUENCY OF EXPERIENCE IN TWO SUPERVISION CATEGORIES

FACTOR SUPERVISION BY	Homogeneity of Variance		t TEST			REJECT H_o
	X^2	Prob.	n_1* n_2	t	Prob.	
7 FORMAL CLASSROOM VISITATIONS	2.27	0.13	89 35	2.28	<0.025	Yes
10 DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHING COMPETENCE BY EXAMPLE	19.00	0.00	38 54	1.03	<0.306	No[a]

*n_1 = the fully satisfied group

n_2 = the completely dissatisfied group (want more frequent supervision)

[a] In Factor 10, $\overline{X}\ n_1 = 1.19$ and $\overline{X}\ n_2 = 1.11$

As shown in Table XXIV, the null hypothesis is rejected in Factor 7. In both factors, however, the mean frequency of supervision experience score of the satisfied group is higher than that of the dissatisfied group.

Accepting the findings presented in Table XXIII for Factors 6, 8 and 9, and those presented in Table XXIV for Factors 7 and 10, it thus becomes meaningful to test the remaining hypotheses using all five supervision categories. Hence it now remains to investigate the possibility of significant associations between beginning teacher satisfaction with supervision and (1) Rapport with the Principal, and (2) Career Satisfaction. For Factors 7 and 10, the findings which are reported refer to the Fully Satisfied and Completely Dissatisfied groups established as different in terms of their preferred frequency of supervision experience in Table XXIV. Although the difference is significant only in the case of Factor 7, in the case of Factor 10 the mean frequency of supervision score of the Fully Satisfied group is somewhat greater than that of the Completely Dissatisfied group, as shown in the footnote to the Table. Attention is drawn to these facts each time results are tabled.

VIII. HYPOTHESIS 15 (SATISFACTION WITH SUPERVISION: RAPPORT): FINDINGS

Hypothesis 15 states: In each of a number of supervision categories, no significant differences exist among the means of the Rapport with the Principal scores of beginning teachers classified by their preferred frequency of supervision experience.

As explained in the previous Section, it is feasible to test only Hypothesis 15.2, i.e., the only comparison made is between the satisfied group of beginning teachers and those who want more frequent supervision.

Table XXV presents the findings relating to Hypothesis 15.2. The null hypothesis is rejected in all supervision categories except Factor 7, Formal Classroom Visitations. In all factors, however, the mean Rapport with the Principal score of the satisfied group is higher than the mean Rapport score of those beginning teachers who want more frequent supervision.

Discussion

A significant association between Rapport with the Principal and satisfaction with supervision experience is demonstrated by the findings presented in Table XXV in respect of four of the five supervision categories. With reference to the outstanding factor, Factor 7, Table XXV suggests that Rapport with the Principal is not significantly associated with the level of satisfaction experienced by the beginning teachers surveyed. The finding of no significant difference here reflects the fact that whereas the actual frequency with which beginning teachers experience this form of supervision is associated with their feelings of Rapport (Table XIX), the satisfaction deriving from Formal Classroom Visitations is not. This may be due to the evaluative nature of this factor, discussed earlier in this Chapter (Section III).

IX. HYPOTHESIS 16 (SATISFACTION WITH SUPERVISION: CAREER SATISFACTION): FINDINGS

Hypothesis 16 states: In each of a number of supervision categories, no significant differences exist among the means of the Career Satisfaction scores of beginning teachers classified by their preferred frequency of supervision experience.

TABLE XXV

BEGINNING TEACHERS WHO ARE SATISFIED WITH THEIR SUPERVISION EXPERIENCE COMPARED WITH THOSE WHO WANT MORE SUPERVISION EXPERIENCE IN TERMS OF THEIR RAPPORT WITH THE PRINCIPAL

FACTOR (SATISFACTION WITH SUPERVISION)	Homogeneity of Variance		t TEST			REJECT H_o
	X^2	Prob.	n_1* n_2	t	Prob.	
6 FACE-TO-FACE DISCUSSION	4.22	0.04	163 46	2.93	< 0.004	Yes
7 ** FORMAL CLASSROOM VISITATIONS	<0.01	0.98	89 35	1.41	< 0.162	No
8 PROMOTION OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT	12.61	< 0.001	154 55	9.69	< 0.0001	Yes[a]
9 COLLEGIAL PROFESSIONALIZATION	13.01	< 0.001	130 55	4.25	< 0.0001	Yes[a]
10 ** DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHING COMPETENCE BY EXAMPLE	8.53	0.004	38 54	3.01	< 0.004	Yes

* n_1 = the 'Satisfied' group [a] Supra p. 126
n_2 = the 'Want More' group

The mean Rapport with the Principal score of the Satisfied group is numerically greater than that of the Want More group in all five factors.

** These findings should be interpreted in conjunction with the discussion in Section VII of this Chapter and Table XXIV (supra p. 206).

In Section VII it is explained why it is feasible to test only Hypothesis 16.2. The one comparison made here is, in fact, between those beginning teachers who find their present frequency of supervision experience about right and those who prefer more frequent supervision.

Table XXVI presents the findings relating to Hypothesis 16.2. The null hypothesis is rejected in Factors 6, 8, and 10, and accepted in the other two supervision categories. However, the mean Career Satisfaction score of the satisfied group is higher than that of the dissatisfied group in all factors except Factor 9, Collegial Professionalization.

Discussion

The findings presented in Table XXVI reveal that satisfaction with the frequency with which three supervision categories are experienced by the beginning teachers surveyed is significantly associated with their Career Satisfaction. The three supervision categories encompass Face-to-Face Discussion, Promotion of Professional Development, and Development of Teaching Competence by Example. Although it may therefore be inferred that neglect of these three supervision categories by supervisory personnel is likely to be associated with lower levels of beginning teacher Career Satisfaction, the influence of Rapport with the Principal has yet to be assessed (Hypothesis 18, Section XVII).

On the other hand, the findings shown in Table XXVI also reveal no significant association between satisfaction with supervision experience and Career Satisfaction in two supervision categories. In other words, beginning teacher satisfaction with the frequency with which

TABLE XXVI

BEGINNING TEACHERS WHO ARE SATISFIED WITH THEIR SUPERVISION EXPERIENCE COMPARED WITH THOSE WHO WANT MORE SUPERVISION EXPERIENCE IN TERMS OF THEIR CAREER SATISFACTION

FACTOR (SATISFACTION WITH SUPERVISION)	Homogeneity of Variance		t TEST			REJECT H_o
	X^2	Prob.	n_1* n_2	t	Prob.	
6 FACE-TO-FACE DISCUSSION	2.27	0.13	163 46	3.24	<0.002	Yes
7 ** FORMAL CLASSROOM VISITATIONS	0.003	0.96	89 35	0.49	<0.623	No
8 PROMOTION OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT	2.32	0.13	154 55	2.04	<0.043	Yes
9 COLLEGIAL PROFESSIONALIZATION	2.21	0.14	130 55	0.81	<0.422	No
10 ** DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHING COMPETENCE BY EXAMPLE	0.64	0.42	38 54	2.17	<0.033	Yes

* n_1 = the 'Satisfied' group
n_2 = the 'Want More' group

The mean Career Satisfaction score of the Satisfied group is numerically greater than that of the Want More group in all factors except Factor 9.

** These findings should be interpreted in conjunction with the discussion in Section VII of this Chapter and Table XXIV (supra p. 206).

they are supervised by Formal Classroom Visitations and by Collegial Professionalization is not significantly associated with feelings of satisfaction with teaching as a career, at least for the sample of teachers included in this study. This is not to be interpreted to mean that beginning teachers do not need or want more experience of the two forms of supervision. The bar chart diagrams included in Appendix C belie such a notion.

Nor are these two findings of no significant difference to be interpreted to mean that satisfaction in respect of Factors 7 and 9 is unimportant. The importance of satisfaction here is subject to value-judgments about the desirability of gratifying the need of or want for more supervision as expressed by the beginning teacher respondents.

X. HYPOTHESIS 17 (SATISFACTION WITH SUPERVISION AND RAPPORT: CAREER SATISFACTION): FINDINGS

Hypothesis 17 states: In each of a number of supervision categories, no significant differences exist among the means of the Career Satisfaction scores of beginning teachers classified both by their preferred frequency of supervision experience and by their feelings of Rapport with the Principal.

In Section VII, it is explained that too few beginning teachers express a preference for less frequent supervision experience to justify their inclusion in the analysis of the data. Hence only Hypotheses 17.2 and 17.3 are tested.

Hypothesis 17.2 concerns only satisfied beginning teachers in each supervision category. These teachers are divided into a low group (below the mean) and a high group (above the mean) on the basis of their

Rapport with the Principal scores. The null hypothesis is that no significant difference exists between the mean Career Satisfaction scores of the two groups.

Hypothesis 17.3 is similar, but it is concerned with only those beginning teachers who are dissatisfied in each supervision category.

Table XXVII presents the findings relating to Hypothesis 17.2, and Table XXVIII presents those relating to Hypothesis 17.3.

In Table XXVII, the null hypothesis is rejected in two of the supervision categories. In all five factors, however, the mean Career Satisfaction score of those high on Rapport with the Principal is greater than that of the low Rapport group.

In Table XXVIII, the null hypothesis is rejected in two supervision categories, though, once again, the mean Career Satisfaction score of the high Rapport group is greater than that of the low Rapport group in all five supervision categories.

Discussion

The findings presented in Tables XXVII and XXVIII may conveniently be discussed together.

In the first place, the tests on Factor 7 reveal no significant difference between the low and high Rapport groups, irrespective of their degree of satisfaction with supervision experience. The unique nature of this factor is discussed in earlier sections (Sections III and XI), and need not be repeated here.

With regard to the other four supervision categories, it is pertinent to note that Rapport is significantly associated with Career Satisfaction either for the satisfied or for the dissatisfied group in

TABLE XXVII

BEGINNING TEACHERS WHO ARE SATISFIED WITH THEIR SUPERVISION EXPERIENCE: THOSE LOW ON RAPPORT WITH THE PRINCIPAL COMPARED WITH THOSE HIGH ON RAPPORT WITH THE PRINCIPAL IN TERMS OF THEIR CAREER SATISFACTION

FACTOR (SATISFACTION WITH SUPERVISION)	Homogeneity of Variance		t TEST			REJECT H_o
	X^2	Prob.	n_1* n_2	t	Prob.	
6 FACE-TO-FACE DISCUSSION	0.60	0.44	57 106	2.63	<0.010	Yes
7 ** FORMAL CLASSROOM VISITATIONS	1.26	0.26	30 59	1.36	<0.178	No
8 PROMOTION OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT	0.81	0.37	43 111	1.19	<0.236	No
9 COLLEGIAL PROFESSIONALIZATION	0.006	0.94	38 92	2.37	<0.020	Yes
10 ** DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHING COMPETENCE BY EXAMPLE	2.08	0.15	10 28	0.32	<0.759	No

*n_1 = the low Rapport with the Principal group
n_2 = the high Rapport with the Principal group

The mean Career Satisfaction score of the high Rapport group is numerically greater than that of the low Rapport group in all factors except Factor 10.

** These findings should be interpreted in conjunction with the discussion in Section VII of this Chapter and Table XXIV (supra p. 206).

TABLE XXVIII

BEGINNING TEACHERS WHO WANT MORE SUPERVISION EXPERIENCE: THOSE LOW ON RAPPORT WITH THE PRINCIPAL COMPARED WITH THOSE HIGH ON RAPPORT WITH THE PRINCIPAL IN TERMS OF THEIR CAREER SATISFACTION

FACTOR (SATISFACTION WITH SUPERVISION)	Homogeneity of Variance		t TEST			REJECT H_o
	X^2	Prob.	n_1* n_2	t	Prob.	
6 FACE-TO-FACE DISCUSSION	0.77	0.38	24 22	1.64	<0.109	No
7 ** FORMAL CLASSROOM VISITATIONS	1.72	0.19	13 22	2.02	<0.052	No
8 PROMOTION OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT	11.75	<0.001	40 15	4.40	<0.0001	Yes[a]
9 COLLEGIAL PROFESSIONALIZATION	0.35	0.55	29 26	1.90	<0.063	No
10 ** DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHING COMPETENCE BY EXAMPLE	0.24	0.62	26 28	2.03	<0.048	Yes

*n_1 = the low Rapport with the Principal group
n_2 = the high Rapport with the Principal group

[a] Supra p. 126

The mean Career Satisfaction score of the high Rapport group is numerically greater than that of the low Rapport group in all five factors.

** These findings should be interpreted in conjunction with the discussion in Section VII of this Chapter and Table XXIV (supra p. 206).

every factor. Hence the broad conclusion may be drawn that Rapport is too important a variable to be overlooked when assessing the contribution of satisfaction with supervision experience to Career Satisfaction.

For example, in Factor 6, Table XXVII shows that, among the satisfied beginning teachers, Rapport is significantly associated with Career Satisfaction and that those high on Rapport are also more satisfied with teaching as a career. In essence, this opens up the possibility that it is not just satisfaction with supervision experience that accounts for the significant difference found in mean Career Satisfaction scores when Hypothesis 16 was tested (Table XXVI). The influence of the 106 high Rapport respondents (as against 57 low Rapport respondents) may account for an important part of the demonstrated difference. This appears even more likely since the evidence presented in Table XXVIII shows that Rapport is not significantly associated with the Career Satisfaction of those who are dissatisfied in this factor.

In Factor 9, satisfaction with supervision experience is shown not to be significantly associated with Career Satisfaction (Table XXVI), but for those beginning teachers who are satisfied in this supervision category, Rapport is significantly associated with Career Satisfaction (Table XXVII). However, this association does not obtain at the 0.05 level of probability for those dissatisfied with the frequency of their supervision by Collegial Professionalization (Table XXVIII).

In Factors 8 and 10, on the other hand, it is among the dissatisfied beginning teachers that Rapport is significantly associated with Career Satisfaction (Table XXVIII). Perhaps in these two supervision categories in particular, feelings of high Rapport compensate beginning teachers for their felt lack of satisfaction with the frequency with which they experience promotion of their long term professional growth and development of their teaching competence by being shown rather than told what to do.

With respect to Hypothesis 17, therefore, the broad conclusion remains that Rapport is pervasively associated with the Career Satisfaction of the beginning teachers surveyed. When it is recalled that in both Tables XXVII and XXVIII, the mean Career Satisfaction score of the high Rapport group is greater than that of the low Rapport group in every instance including Factor 7, "pervasively associated" does not seem too strong a phrase to use.

XI. SIGNIFICANT FINDINGS RELATED TO SATISFACTION WITH SUPERVISION EXPERIENCE: CHI SQUARE TEST RESULTS

This section describes the significant findings resulting from the use of nonparametric chi square tests to test nominal data items against the beginning teachers' satisfaction with the frequency of their supervision experience. Beginning teacher satisfaction was determined by means of a Satisfaction Index (Appendix C). Findings are tabled in Appendix I.

With respect to beginning teacher satisfaction with the frequency with which they experience Face-to-Face Discussion, two nominal data items closely approached an acceptable level of significance. Both findings are reported here out of interest.

As can be seen from Appendix I_1, school size may play a part in the satisfaction of beginning teachers in this factor. Thus 71% of schools with 10 or less staff members have, on average, relatively satisfied beginning teachers, compared with 73% of schools having 11-20 staff members, 95% of schools having 21-30 staff members, and 100% of the eleven schools with over 30 staff members.

Moreover, beginning teacher satisfaction with supervision by Face-to-Face Discussion may be associated with the institution in which beginning teachers receive their training, in that 80% of those who attended the University of Alberta are satisfied in this supervision category, whereas 63% of those who trained elsewhere are satisfied in this respect (Appendix I_2). Note that about 89% of the total sample of beginning teachers attended the University of Alberta. It appears that this group is contributing to the substantial levels of satisfaction with supervision by Face-to-Face Discussion reported by the beginning teachers surveyed.

Two nominal data items were found to be significantly associated with the satisfaction expressed by beginning teachers with the frequency of Promotion of Professional Development. Appendix I_3 shows that satisfaction in this factor is significantly associated with the number of years the principal has been a principal. In 79% of schools with principals of five years' or less experience as a principal, beginning teachers are satisfied in this category, whereas in 56% of schools with principals of more than five years' experience as a principal, beginning teachers are satisfied in this factor.

The same broad difference is found when the principal's years as principal of the same school are considered in relation to satisfaction with Promotion of Professional Development (Appendix 1_4).

Turning to beginning teacher satisfaction with Collegial Professionalization, it can be seen from Appendix 1_5 that, of beginning teachers who followed the B.Ed. route to gain teaching qualifications, almost twice as many are satisfied in this supervision category as are dissatisfied. Of those who followed the Professional Diploma After Degree route, over four times as many beginning teachers are satisfied as are dissatisfied. It is possible, then, that the PDAD group are more realistic in their expectations regarding Collegial Professionalization, or it may be that they have different professionalization experience from the B.Ed. group. However, explanation of these matters is beyond the scope of the present research data.

Finally, one nominal data item was found to be significantly associated with beginning teacher satisfaction with the frequency of Development of Teaching Competence by Example. The item is the grade level of the teachers' classes: Appendix I_6 shows that 66% of beginning teachers taking Junior High School classes want more frequent supervision in this factor, 52% of those teaching Elementary grades are similarly dissatisfied, as are 39% of those teaching Senior High School grades. Perhaps the relatively high desire for more frequent supervision of this nature among beginning teachers in Junior High Schools reflects the particular difficulties which confront teachers generally in these schools. This again is surmise, and cannot be supported either by the research data generated in the course of this study or by respondents' comments.

Some further general remarks, however, are worth recording. Firstly, the availability of the principal is likely an important factor in the satisfaction of at least some of the beginning teachers surveyed. On the one hand, there are the comments from respondents who are explicitly appreciative of the principal's efforts to make himself available when the teacher needs him, despite the fact that he is perceived to be a busy person. On the other hand, there are comments from respondents who would like more time with their principals, but find them "hard to get hold of." It goes without saying that beginning teachers seek "concrete guidance" rather than off-hand generalities when they do get some time with their principal.

Secondly, there seems to be little doubt that supervision is a sensitive area in many schools. Principal respondents, for example, claim that a principal's motives are easily misinterpreted: a suggestion made to a beginning teacher may be "taken as an affront to that teacher's competence"; a glance or gesture on the part of a principal "often gets blown out of proportion or misunderstood."

Some principals see a remedy in following an open-door policy, giving "help in whatever areas teachers require it", but leaving it up to the teacher to seek help or advice.

The findings reviewed in this report suggest that this policy may not be generally appropriate, firstly, with regard to promoting high levels of satisfaction with supervision experience; secondly with regard to nurturing high levels of Rapport with the Principal; and thirdly, with regard to fostering high levels of Career Satisfaction among the beginning teachers who provided the data for this study.

Summary of significant chi square test findings relating to two nominal data items

Two nominal data items stand out by being significantly associated with a number of the research variables. The first is the number of years that the principal has been a principal. This item was significantly associated with:

(a) Beginning teachers' feelings of Rapport with the Principal: 69% of principals who have spent five years or less as a principal have high Rapport schools; 44% of principals with more than five years' experience have high Rapport schools.

(b) Beginning teacher involvement in Student Deployment decisions: 69% of principals who have spent five years or less as a principal have, on average, teachers who are highly involved; 42% of principals with more than five years' experience have teachers highly involved in these decisions.

(c) Formal Classroom Visitations: 66% of principals who have spent five years or less as a principal have, on average, beginning teachers who experience this form of supervision relatively frequently; 39% of principals with more than 5 years' experience have teachers experiencing Classroom Visitations relatively frequently.

(d) Development of Teaching Competence by Example: 48% of principals who have spent five years or less as a principal have, on average, beginning teachers who experience this form of supervision relatively frequently; 24% of principals with more than five years' experience have teachers experiencing this form of supervision relatively frequently.

(e) Satisfaction with frequency of Promotion of Professional Development: 79% of principals who have spent five years or less as a principal have, on average, beginning teachers who are satisfied in this factor; 56% of principals with more than five years' experience have satisfied teachers in this supervision category.

It was not an objective of this study to determine why these findings might occur. However, the above differences are broadly similar to those found when principals who have spent five years or less in office in the same school are compared with principals of over five years' experience in the same school. Yet although the above research variables have been shown to be important elements of the satisfaction of the beginning teachers surveyed, to what extent this may be true of more experienced teachers is not established.

(13) The second nominal data item found to be significantly associated with more than just one or two research variables is the grade level of the beginning teachers' classes. This item was significantly associated with:

(a) Beginning teacher involvement in Student Deployment decisions: 63% of Elementary level teachers, 32% of Junior High School teachers, and 30% of Senior High School teachers are high on this factor.

(b) Beginning teacher involvement in Classroom Curriculum decisions: 36% of Elementary level teachers, 51% of Junior High School teachers, and 57% of Senior High School teachers are high on this factor.

(c) Beginning teacher involvement in Work-Associated Tasks decisions: 43% of Elementary level teachers, 50% of Junior High School teachers, and 78% of Senior High School teachers are high on this factor.

(d) Collegial Professionalization: 66% of Elementary level beginning teachers, 55% of those in Junior High School, and 32% of those in Senior High School experience this form of supervision relatively frequently.

(d) Satisfaction with frequency of supervision by Development of Teaching Competence by Example: 48% of Elementary level beginning teachers, 34% of those in Junior High School, and 60% of those in Senior High School are professionally satisfied in this factor.

These findings are summarized for convenience. No conclusions are specifically drawn from them beyond any tentatively suggested in the course of this report.

XII. CONCLUSIONS: THE SUPERVISION CATEGORIES

The data for the foregoing analyses were provided by 213 beginning teacher questionnaire respondents. The findings provide the basis for the conclusions presented in this section.

Table XXIX presents the findings relating to Hypotheses 10 - 13, 5, and 14 - 17 in summary form. As with summary Table XVIII, the basis of the categorization of the sample of beginning teachers into either Low and High groups (Hypotheses 10 - 13 and 5) or Satisfied and Want More groups (Hypotheses 14 - 17) is shown for each hypothesis tested. The dependent variable is also recorded in the case of each hypothesis.

TABLE XXIX

SIGNIFICANT FINDINGS IN RESPECT OF HYPOTHESES 10-17 IN SUMMARY FORM

BASIS OF CATEGORIZATION OF SAMPLE	PRESENT FREQUENCY OF SUPERVISION EXPERIENCE				RAPPORT	SATISFACTION RESULTING FROM FREQUENCY OF SUPERVISION EXPERIENCE				
HYPOTHESIS	10	11	12	13	5	14	15	16	17.2	17.3
DEPENDENT VARIABLE	RAPPORT	CAREER SATISFACTION				ACTUAL FRE-QUENCY OF SUPER-VISION	RAPPORT	CAREER SATIS-FACTION		
FACTOR			*	*	*				*	*
6 FACE-TO-FACE DISCUSSION	✓✓	✓		✓	✓✓	✓✓	✓	✓	✓	
7 FORMAL CLASSROOM VISITATIONS	✓		✓	✓		✓ (b)	(b)	(b)	(b)	(b)
8 PROMOTION OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT	✓✓	✓	✓			✓✓	✓✓	✓		✓✓
9 COLLEGIAL PROFESSIONALI-ZATION	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓✓	✓✓		✓	
10 DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHING COMPETENCE BY EXAMPLE	✓✓	✓	✓	✓		(b)	✓ (b)	✓ (b)	(b)	✓ (b)

KEY: * Low and High Rapport with the Principal groups compared

✓ Significant difference found between means (< 0.05)

✓✓ Highly significant difference found between means (< 0.0005)

(b) These findings should be interpreted in conjunction with the discussion in Section VII of this Chapter and Table XXIV (supra p. 206).

In conjunction with Table XXIX, the conclusions may be summarized as follows:

(1) The conceptualization of Professional Satisfaction as a state of satisfaction resulting from gratification of the need of or want for independence from undesired supervision and operationalized in terms of frequency of supervision experience is not confirmed by the findings. The relationship between satisfaction with supervision experience and frequency of supervision experience is shown to be such that relatively high frequencies of supervision experience are associated with the satisfaction experienced by the beginning teachers surveyed (Hypothesis 14, Table XXIX).

(2) The conceptualization of Professional Satisfaction as but one of a number of elements of Career Satisfaction is neither confirmed nor necessarily disconfirmed by the findings relating to the supervision dimension. However, it was not found to be applicable in the case of the beginning teachers surveyed for the purposes of this study.

(3) The actual frequency of supervision experience appears to contribute substantively to Career Satisfaction in those supervision categories where supportive and helping supervisory practices predominate or are emphasized (Hypothesis 11, Table XXIX).

(4) Supervision by Formal Classroom Visitations may be perceived as being mainly evaluative in nature. For this or for some other reason not explained by the research data collected, neither the frequency of occurrence of this factor nor

beginning teacher satisfaction with the frequency of their supervision experience in this factor is associated significantly with Career Satisfaction (Hypotheses 11 and 16, Table XXIX).

(5) Rapport with the Principal appears to be a crucial element in the Career Satisfaction experienced by the beginning teachers surveyed. In every significant finding reported as a result of the analyses pertaining to all five supervision categories, and in every finding of no statistical significance except one, those high on Rapport have a mean Career Satisfaction score greater than that of those low on Rapport (Hypotheses 12, 13, 5, 17.2 and 17.3, Table XXIX).

(6) In the three factors, Face-to-Face Discussion, Promotion of Professional Development and Development of Teaching Competence by Example, there is (i) a highly significant association between the frequency of supervision experience and Rapport with the Principal (Hypothesis 10, Table XXIX); (ii) a significant association between the frequency of supervision experience and Career Satisfaction (Hypothesis 11, Table XXIX); and (iii) a significant association between satisfaction with supervision experience in these categories and (a) Rapport with the Principal, and (b) Career Satisfaction (Hypotheses 15 and 16, Table XXIX).

Cause and effect relationships among the four variables are not established by these findings, but Career Satisfaction has been viewed as the dependent variable rather than as one of the independent variables. If this reflects reality, then important interlinking relationships exist among the actual frequency of these three forms of supervision experience (Factors 6, 8 and 10), beginning teacher satisfaction with the frequency with which these forms of supervision are experienced, and beginning teachers' feelings of Rapport with the Principal. Analysis of their responses leaves little doubt that these relationships are critical to the Career Satisfaction of the beginning teachers surveyed.

The same may perhaps be said of supervision by Collegial Professionalization, but with much less confidence.

It is not the intention here to trace through the summary of findings presented in Table XXIX, factor by factor. Yet one example may not be out of place.

Consider, therefore, Factor 6, a supervision category of no small importance, according to the foregoing analyses. It is established in testing Hypotheses 10 and 11 that the frequency of supervision by Face-to-Face Discussion is significantly associated with high Rapport and with high Career Satisfaction. Frequent experience of this from of supervision leads to feelings of satisfaction (Hypothesis 14). Satisfaction in this factor is associated significantly with high Rapport (Hypothesis 15) and high Career Satisfaction (Hypothesis 16). Feelings of Rapport do not differentiate in terms of Career Satisfaction among those who are low on frequency of experience of Face-to-Face Discussion (Hypothesis 12) nor among those who are dissatisfied with their experience in this supervision category (Hypothesis 17.3). From this, it may be inferred that relative infrequency of supervision experience is contributing to the comparatively low Career Satisfaction of these beginning teachers.

On the other hand, Rapport with the Principal does differentiate in terms of Career Satisfaction among those who are high on frequency of experience of Face-to-Face Discussion (Hypothesis 13) and among those who are satisfied with their experience in this supervision category (Hypothesis 17.2). From this, it may be inferred that both actual frequency of experience and feelings of Rapport contribute to the comparatively high Career Satisfaction of these respondents.

Similar analysis shows Rapport with the Principal to be very important to those beginning teachers dissatisfied with the frequency with which they experience Promotion of Professional Development and the Development of Teaching Competence by Example (Hypothesis 17.3). For such teachers, high levels of Rapport appear to compensate somewhat in terms of Career Satisfaction for lack of actual supervision experience. However, Rapport with the Principal does not differentiate in terms of Career Satisfaction among those who are satisfied in these two supervision categories (Hypothesis 17.2). The inference here is that it is the actual frequency of experience which is contributing substantially to the Career Satisfaction of the satisfied beginning teachers.

(7) The raw data reveal that almost none of the beginning teachers included in the study want less frequent experience in any supervision category. Although some measure of satisfaction exists generally with the frequency of supervision experiences, as shown in Figures 3 and 4 of Appendix C, there is little doubt that much remains to be done in the interests of both the satisfaction of the beginning teachers surveyed with their supervision experience and their Career Satisfaction.

(8) Finally, it is worth recalling the claim made in the course of earlier Chapters of this report that it is not simply what a principal does that is important, but also the way that he does it. Thus, it was shown that the leadership or administrative style of the principal is not as important as teacher acceptance of his style. The findings of this study help to explain beginning teacher acceptance or rejection of a wide variety of administrative styles. In other words, what a principal does and the way that he does it appear to be evaluated simultaneously, rather than independently, by the teachers surveyed here. The single, composite outcome of their evaluation appears to be expressed in terms of Rapport with the Principal.

XIII. SUMMARY OF CHAPTER VI

In this Chapter, the findings related to each of the nine hypotheses concerned with beginning teacher supervision experience are presented. A section is devoted to each hypothesis, and a brief discussion follows the tabling of the findings.

Two sections (Sections VI and XI) describe significant findings resulting from testing nominal data items against the five supervision categories. A summary of two sets of chi square test findings is included in Section XI.

Section VII contains an important discussion on the conceptualization and operationalization of Professional Satisfaction. In addition, two of the supervision categories (Factors 7 and 10) were subjected to further testing which enabled the later findings in respect of these two factors to be meaningfully interpreted. Only fully satisfied and completely dissatisfied beginning teachers' responses were used for this purpose. It should be noted that only these teachers provide the data used in testing Hypotheses 14 to 17.3 with regard to Factors 7 and 10.

The Chapter concludes with a summary table of the significant findings associated with the supervision experience hypotheses. The broad conclusions drawn by the researcher regarding the supervision categories are also stated.

CHAPTER VII

OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

I. INTRODUCTION

The purposes of this Chapter are as follows: to briefly overview the study as a whole; to state conclusions drawn by the researcher with respect to both decision making and supervision dimensions of the study and to provide some synthesis of these independently formulated conslusions; and to discuss the implications of these conclusions for future research and practice.

II. OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

1. The Problem

The problem to which this study addressed itself was the satisfaction of beginning teachers. Specifically, it investigated the relationship between the decision making involvement and supervision experience of a sample of beginning teachers and their satisfaction with teaching. In addition, the quality of the relationship between administrator and beginning teacher formed an integral part of the investigation. It is not only what an administrator says or does that influences feelings of satisfaction, but also the way that he says or does it. Hence it was felt necessary to take into account beginning teacher acceptance or rejection of the administrator's style of leadership as reflected in the level of rapport which exists between them.

2. Analysis of the Problem

The literature abounds with references to the negative effects which "the administration and supervision" appear to have on the level of teacher satisfaction, and in particular, on beginning teacher satisfaction. One of the purposes of the study reported here has been to establish to what extent "the administration and supervision" might be held responsible for beginning teacher satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

In this report, "the administration and supervision" were viewed as interrelated dimensions of control. In general, control by decision making enables the administration to determine what is to be and what is not to be in matters which vitally affect the employee's work and work environment. Control by supervision refers to the mechanisms which enable the administration to enforce the decisions that have been reached.

For the teaching profession, the long-standing thrust for greater professional autonomy may be interpreted as having two fronts. The first front is directed towards achieving an (as yet) undefined degree of decision making involvement. Success on this front allows teachers to exercise greater control over their work and work environment. It is widely affirmed that such success contributes substantively to the satisfaction which teachers feel with teaching as a career, beginning teachers not excepted.

The second front of the thrust for greater autonomy for the teaching profession is conceived of as directed towards achieving independence from undesired supervisory practices. Success on this front may enhance the prestige of the teaching profession, and thereby the esteem in which its members are held.

By viewing professional autonomy in this light, it is possible to conceptualize Professional Satisfaction (i.e., the state of satisfaction which results from gratification of the need of or want for participation in decision making and/or independence from undesired supervision) as a state of satisfaction (i) which may exist in its own right; and (ii) which may or may not make a significant contribution to the overall satisfaction which teachers feel with teaching as a career.

If this were the reality, then it seems certain that "the administration and supervision" may logically be held responsible for the degree of Professional Satisfaction which beginning teachers experience, but it is no longer certain how Professional Satisfaction is related to Career Satisfaction.

The centrality of the principal in both dimensions of Professional Satisfaction was revealed in the literature review. It seems certain that the Canadian principal is the key figure in the implementation of participative decision making within his school. He is executor and/or architect of the supervisory practices employed within his school. His position is both powerful and prestigious in the eyes of his staff, and he is regarded as the primary supervisor by a vast majority of beginning teachers. Thus the Professional Satisfaction of beginning teachers appears to lie very much in the hands of the principal. It is almost true to say that, as far as beginning teachers are concerned, "the administration and supervision" means the principal. One teacher respondent put it this way: "Administration within the school, totally, can make or break a teacher; that is, the principal can ruin a teacher who is in his first year."

3. Instrumentation and Methodology

Questionnaires were constructed and administered to the principals and beginning teachers of the eight school jurisdictions which encircle the city of Edmonton. Both the decision making involvement items and the supervision experience items were extracted from the literature and arranged into apparently logical groups. A pilot study was carried out in a different school jurisdiction and certain improvements incorporated into the questionnaires before they were finalized for the study proper.

A factor analysis of the pilot study responses revealed the desirability and feasibility of using beginning teacher responses (rather than the apparently logical grouping of items by the researcher) to establish the factors -- the decision making areas and supervision categories -- which were central in the data analyses.

In addition to responding to the decision making and supervision items, the Teachers' Questionnaire asks beginning teachers to state their preference regarding their degree of involvement in decision making for each item and regarding the frequency of occurrence of each supervisory practice. This was necessary to establish whether any lack of satisfaction reported in respect of any item was due to too little or too much decision making involvement, and too infrequent or too frequent supervision experience, i.e., to establish "with what" and "why" a beginning teacher was dissatisfied.

All principals and over 81% (n = 213) of the beginning teachers returned usable questionnaires.

4. Treatment of the Data

As mentioned above, the decision making areas and supervision categories into which individual questionnaire items are grouped were established by factor analysis. Five factors were thus isolated for each dimension. They were meaningfully interpreted and named. No inter-factor correlation coefficient exceeds 0.34 and most of the correlation coefficients are much lower than this. Certain items were eliminated by the factor analysis procedures.

Although differences in perceptions of reality occur between principal and beginning teacher respondents, it is the responses of the latter which provide the research data analyzed.

5. Operationalization of Professional Satisfaction

Theoretically, Professional Satisfaction results from gratification of professional autonomy needs or wants. This implies that respondents who are professionally satisfied and professionally dissatisfied are measurably different

(i) in terms of their involvement in decision making; and

(ii) in terms of their actual supervision experience.

Theoretically, dissatisfaction may be expressed because of either too little or too much involvement in any of a number of decision areas or too little or too much supervision experience in any of a number of supervision categories.

In this study, satisfaction with the present level of decision making involvement in each of five decision areas was deemed to identify professionally satisfied beginning teachers in regard to the decision making dimension of Professional Satisfaction. Fully satisfied respondents are those who reported that they find their present level of decision involvement about right for every item incorporated in the factor.

In the supervision dimension, satisfaction resulting from gratification of the want for independence from undesired supervision in each of five supervision categories was deemed to identify professionally satisfied beginning teachers. Fully satisfied respondents are those expressing satisfaction with a present frequency of supervision experience which, in turn, reflects independence from undesired supervision in every item of the factor.

Thus the preferences which beginning teachers expressed in their questionnaire responses were assumed to reflect their feelings of Professional Satisfaction.

However, each factor established by the factor analysis consisted of a number of questionnaire items. An index and a scale were therefore both needed in order to catetorize teachers into three groups on the basis of their expressed preferences: those who are satisfied, those who are dissatisfied because they want less, and those who are dissatisfied because they want more of any factor in either the decision making or supervision dimension.

The Professional Satisfaction Index (PSI) and a PSI scale were introduced to meet these needs. As is more fully explained in Appendix C, satisfied beginning teachers are defined in this study as those who were not more than $33\frac{1}{3}$ % dissatisfied in the factor under investigation.

6. The Hypotheses

The hypotheses are divided into two groups, those which pertain to the five decision areas (Hypotheses 1 - 9) and those which are concerned with the five supervision categories (Hypothesis 10 - 17). Hypothesis 5, which investigates the relationship between Rapport with the Principal and Career Satisfaction, irrespective of decision making involvement or supervision experience, is common to both dimensions.

Within each major dimension, the first four hypotheses (Hypotheses 1 - 4 and 10 - 13) categorize respondents on the basis of the present degree of their decision making involvement or the present frequency of their supervision experience in each factor. Similarly within each dimension, the last four hypotheses (Hypotheses 6 - 9 and 14 - 17) categorize respondents on the basis of their satisfaction with their present experience in each factor. Whenever respondents are classified into low and high Rapport with the Principal groups, the mean score of the 213 beginning teacher responses to Rapport items is taken as the point of division.

III. CONCLUSIONS

The findings tabled in Chapters V and VI of this report are the result of testing ninety-three separate hypotheses. In addition, Appendix E tables three significant findings associating Rapport with the Principal and nominal data items, and Appendixes F - I include twenty-two significant findings from tests investigating the associations between nominal data items and each of the ten factors on which the data analyses were based.

In this section, therefore, it is proposed to state the broad conclusions of the study; to synthesize where possible those conclusions which appear common to both the decision making involvement and supervision experience of the 213 beginning teachers surveyed; and to indicate those nominal data items which appear to associate strongly with the satisfaction of those teachers.

The conclusions may be summarized as follows:

(1) With regard to decision making, the conceptualization of Professional Satisfaction as a state of satisfaction resulting from gratification of the want for participation in decision making appears to be validated by the findings. Furthermore, the conceptualization of Professional Satisfaction as distinct from, but one element of, Career Satisfaction appears justified for the decision making dimension.

(2) With regard to supervision, the conceptualization of Professional Satisfaction as a state of satisfaction resulting from gratification of the want for independence from undesired supervision proved to be inapplicable to the sample of beginning teachers surveyed. However, the concept of Professional Satisfaction and the findings pertaining to the beginning teachers' supervision experience were in no way invalidated.

(3) A pervasive association between Rapport with the Principal and Career Satisfaction, between Rapport and actual frequency of supervision experience, and between Rapport and satisfaction with decision making involvement and supervision experience was demonstrated by the evidence presented. For the beginning teachers surveyed, Rapport with the Principal was a critical element in their feelings of satisfaction. In all five decision making areas and all five supervision categories, in every significant finding and in every finding of no statistical significance except one,

those beginning teachers high on Rapport had a mean Career Satisfaction score numerically greater than that of those low on Rapport.

(4) Apart from decisions involving Student Deployment and Core Professional Interaction, the actual degree of involvement in decision making was not significantly associated with Career Satisfaction. It was significantly associated with Professional Satisfaction in all five decision making areas. Two conclusions are drawn from these findings:

(a) Professional Satisfaction in the decision making dimension proved to be measurably distinct from Career Satisfaction; and

(b) decision making involvement, per se, did not appear to contribute to the Career Satisfaction of the beginning teachers surveyed as substantively as the literature reviewed suggests. However, higher levels of Rapport with the Principal were associated with satisfaction with involvement in decision making, thus explaining the higher levels of Career Satisfaction of teachers involved in the participative process.

(5) In the decision making areas, Rapport with the Principal generally differentiated between beginning teachers in terms of Career Satisfaction, irrespective of their degree of Professional Satisfaction.

(6) Turning now to the supervision categories, the actual frequency of supervision experience was significantly associated with

(a) Rapport with the Principal in all five factors; and

(b) Career Satisfaction in all factors except Formal Classroom Visitations. This factor may be a unique supervision category for beginning teachers who perceive that it emphasizes the evaluative function.

(7) Satisfaction with frequency of supervision experience was significantly associated with Career Satisfaction in three factors, Face-to-Face Discussion, Promotion of Professional Development, and Development of Teaching Competence by Example.

(8) In the supervision dimension, Rapport with the Principal differentiated between

  (a) only the satisfied beginning teachers in the factors, Face-to-Face Discussion and Collegial Professionalization; and

  (b) only the dissatisfied beginning teachers in the factors, Promotion of Professional Development and Development of Teaching Competence by Example.

From 6(b) and 8(a) above, it may be concluded that, with respect to Face-to-Face Discussion and Collegial Professionalization, both frequency of experience and Rapport with the Principal were associated with the significantly higher mean Career Satisfaction score of the high Rapport category of satisfied beginning teachers; but that it was the infrequency of supervision experience which was associated with the dissatisfaction expressed by those in the dissatisfied group. From 7 and 8(b) above, it may be concluded that, with respect to Promotion of Professional Development and Development of Teaching Competence by Example, it was the actual frequency of supervision experience which was associated with the satisfaction expressed by the satisfied beginning teachers; but that, among those who were dissatisfied, feelings of high Rapport compensated in terms of Career Satisfaction for a perceived lack of supervision. In sum, the importance of frequency of supervision to Career Satisfaction was demonstrated in four supervision categories, Face-to-Face Discussion, Promotion of Professional Development, Collegial Professionalization, and Development of Teaching Competence by Example.

(9) Taken as a whole, the beginning teachers surveyed perceived themselves as experiencing all supervision categories infrequently. They reported that Development of Teaching Competence by Example hardly ever occurs, that Formal Classroom Visitations might occur once in six months, and that the other three supervision categories might occur occasionally, say, three or four times per half year period (Table VI, supra p. 141).

Taking all supervision categories into account, only 26 responses out of a possible 1065 showed any preference for less frequent supervision experience. Despite a large amount of expressed satisfaction, there was a substantial desire for more frequent supervision among the beginning teachers surveyed, especially in the form of Development of Teaching Competence by Example and Formal Classroom Visitations (Appendix C, Figure 3).

(10) Regarding decision making involvement, the vast majority of respondents experienced feelings of Professional Satisfaction (i.e., their want for participation in decision making had been gratified) in respect of Core Professional Interaction and Classroom Curriculum decisions. About half of them were professionally satisfied in respect of Student Deployment decisions. On the other hand, considerable professional dissatisfaction was expressed in connection with their degree of involvement in decisions about Teaching Load

and Work-Associated Tasks (Appendix C, Figure 2).

(11) With regard to the culpability of "the administration and supervision" in the matter of beginning teacher Career Satisfaction:

(a) In the decision making dimension of Professional Satisfaction, the expressed preference of many respondents for more involvement did not appear to be critical to their Career Satisfaction. How important it is for beginning teachers to be professionally satisfied is another matter. The answer depends on value-judgments.

(b) In the supervision categories, the expressed preference of many respondents for more frequent supervision appeared to be very important to their Career Satisfaction in the three supervision categories, Face-to-Face Discussion, Promotion of Professional Development, and Development of Teaching Competence by Example.

(c) In both decision making and supervision, the satisfaction of beginning teachers surveyed appeared to be preeminently associated with the success of the principal in his role as a builder and maintainer of rapport.

(12) Two nominal data items stood out by being significantly associated with a number of the research variables.

(a) The 70 principals included in the data analysis were categorized into two groups on the basis of their years of service as a principal. The principals who had been a principal for five years or less were more likely to be in schools where beginning teachers reported the following:

(i) higher levels of Rapport with the Principal;

(ii) more involvement in Student Deployment decisions;

(iii) more frequent experience of Formal Classroom Visitations;

(iv) more frequent experience of Development of Teaching Competence by Example; and

(v) satisfaction with the frequency with which they experience Promotion of Professional Development.

(b) The grade level of the beginning teachers' classes was the basis for categorizing teacher respondents into three groups, Elementary level, Junior High School level and Senior High School level teachers. It was found that, compared with the other two groups:

(i) more Elementary level beginning teachers were involved in Student Deployment decisions and experienced relatively frequent supervision by Collegial Professionalization;

(ii) more Senior High School teachers were involved in Classroom Curriculum decisions and decisions about Work-Associated Tasks; and

(iii) fewer Junior High School teachers were satisfied with the frequency with which they experienced supervision in the form of Development of Teaching Competence by Example.

IV. IMPLICATIONS FOR RESEARCH AND PRACTICE

For Research

The value of research findings depends on many factors. Particularly relevant questions at this point in a report must include the following: was the theoretical framework adopted a true reflection of reality? Were the instruments which purport to measure reality adequately valid and reliable? Was the methodology sufficiently sound?

Were research data appropriately treated by the statistical analyses employed? Was the researcher's interpretation of the findings impartial and justified by the evidence? Was the sample representative of a larger population?

Although reasonable attention has been paid to all the particular questions raised above, similar research conducted among beginning teachers who work in school jurisdictions bordering on other large urban centres would either add to or detract from the confidence to be placed in the findings, conclusions and implications reported here.

There also appears to be potential value in conducting similar research among more experienced teachers. Specifically, does the importance of Rapport grow or diminish with years of teaching experience? Is Rapport significantly more important to beginning teachers than to more experienced teachers?

This is not to deny the possible value of conducting similar research among teachers in other geographical areas, either within large urban centres or in more remote localities. For example, there seems to be no logical reason for the importance of Rapport with the Principal to be restricted by geographical or jurisdictional boundaries.

With regard to Rapport, in the course of the present study, the sample was divided into two groups on the basis of their Rapport scores for the testing of 41 hypotheses. In the 29 significant findings, and in 11 of the 12 findings of no statistical significance, those beginning teachers high on Rapport had a mean Career Satisfaction score greater than that of those low on Rapport. Hence it may be that the principal's role is changing from that of a Resource person to that of a "Rapport person" (i.e., one who can successfully build and maintain high levels of rapport), at least for the beginning teacher of the 'seventies as represented in the sample used here. Admittedly, Rapport is a two-way interaction, the initiation of which may be the responsibility of either party. In schools, however, beginning teachers probably look to the holder of the prestigious office of Principal to initiate the building of high levels of Rapport. Furthermore, beginning teacher feelings of Rapport appear to reflect the composite outcome of an evaluation of principal behavior which assesses the principal on both what he does and the way that he does it simultaneously rather than independently (supra p. 230).

The above considerations have suggested a number of directions which future research might follow. But there is also the matter of verification of the concept of Professional Satisfaction and its relationship to Career Satisfaction in the supervision dimension. Problems encountered in this study suggest that these matters are more complex than the present researcher at first recognized, and a number of questions relating to them might be fruitfully investigated. For example, which supervisory practices (if any) do beginning teachers perceive as "undesired", and therefore want independence from them? Is there any validity in the suggestion that a "saturation point" may be reached in respect of any or all supervisory practices, beyond which the practice becomes undesired? Would some measure other than or in addition to frequency of supervision help to clarify what teachers really feel about their supervision experience? Is there really a stage of dependency on supervision through which the beginning teacher passes before seeking Professional Satisfaction in the supervision dimension, i.e., before becoming autonomy-oriented? If so, when does the transition take place, and why?

Another aspect of the present research opens up the interesting possibility of defining the Professional Satisfaction experienced on each dimension as a single score. This possibility arises because the factor analysis conducted in the present study demonstrates very low inter-factor correlations among and between the decision making areas and supervision categories established (Table VII). The total impact of Professional Satisfaction on Career Satisfaction could therefore be assessed either for an individual or for a group.

Were the concept of Professional Satisfaction to be employed in future research, it should be noted that a Professional Satisfaction Index and PSI scale can readily be applied to the supervision dimension. In place of the Satisfaction Index used in the data analysis in this study (illustrated in Figures 3 and 4 of Appendix C), the PSI for the supervision categories would use the same scaling procedures but take the following form:

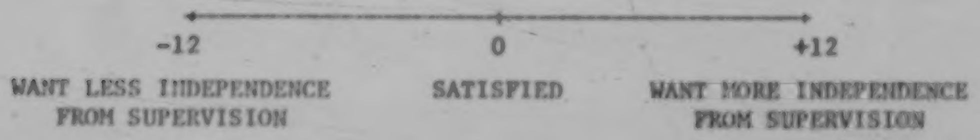
-12
0
+12
WANT LESS INDEPENDENCE FROM SUPERVISION
SATISFIED
WANT MORE INDEPENDENCE FROM SUPERVISION

Figure 7: An Illustration of the Professional Satisfaction Index for Categorizing Supervision Experience.

Provided that the supervisory practices being investigated had been established as undesired forms of supervision, an analysis of responses in terms of Professional Satisfaction is then feasible. For example, using frequency as the measure of supervision experience, if "Satisfied" respondents reported a significantly lower mean frequency score than those wanting more independence from supervision, they would be termed professionally satisfied. If no significant difference existed between the mean frequency scores of these two groups, then no further analysis in terms of Professional Satisfaction would be warranted. Finally, if "Satisfied" respondents reported a significantly higher mean frequency score than those wanting more independence from supervision, the findings would be paradoxical to say the least. This is because it is not logical for a group of respondents to report that they feel satisfied when they are really experiencing relatively high frequencies of undesired forms of supervision. For a similar reason, the number of respondents wanting less independence from supervision (i.e., responding in the negative range in Figure 8) would likely be negligible.

An investigatory analysis such as that just proposed might well contribute towards unravelling some of the complexities associated with the concept of Professional Satisfaction in the supervision dimension. The findings of the study could reveal, for example:

(i) whether all supervisory practices are perceived as desired or undesired, or whether a position of indifference is taken in some cases;

(ii) whether a "saturation point" exists with regard to frequency of supervision, beyond which the "want for" or "indifference to" any given supervisory practice changes, and the practice becomes undesired; and

(iii) what degree of Professional Satisfaction in the supervision dimension exists among the sample of respondents; or, alternatively,

(iv) the investigation could demonstrate that respondents do not seek Professional Satisfaction as far as supervision is concerned: they may not be aggressively autonomy-minded at all.

Finally, judging from the raw data provided by the 213 beginning teacher respondents included in the present study, it seems imperative to conduct studies which will reveal why it is that many principals do not seem either to involve beginning teachers in decision making over a wide range of decision items or to supervise beginning teachers with what might be termed appropriate frequency.

Both dimensions are of immediate consequence. Although decision making involvement, per se, has been shown not to be significantly associated with Career Satisfaction in areas other than within the teacher's classroom, it seems clear that participation in decision making processes fosters growth of Rapport with the Principal.

With the supervision dimension, however, there is fairly widespread dissatisfaction with present experience of many supervisory practices. Many beginning teachers feel that they are undersupervised. That the open-door policy is not universally successful is manifest: though all teachers are free to approach their principal with requests for advice and help, they do not feel able or willing to do so. Furthermore, the category of Formal Classroom Visitations is no exception to the expressed desire for more supervision.

Why, then, do principals not take more of the initiative into their own hands in the matter of supervising their beginning teachers? Research is urgently needed to investigate this question. Is it that principals have been indoctrinated regarding the extent of their supervisory role vis à vis the new breed of beginning teacher? Is it an unanticipated outcome of the drive for autonomy which the teaching profession generally is undergoing? Or is it something more mundane, a simple matter of priorities, with the result that time-availability and convenience prevent frequent supervision of beginning teachers?

Finally, what lies behind the significant differences found to exist between principals who have been a principal for five years or less and their colleagues who have held a principalship for more than five years? For example, what would be the implications for practice if it were found that similar differences between the two categorizations of principal occurred when more experienced teachers were surveyed?

For Practice

The finer details may be different, but the broad spectrum of findings tabled in this report is not new to the literature. Many beginning teachers, after successfully completing a number of years of tertiary education, take up their first teaching appointment and find that they are left to draw on their own relatively inadequate resources.

Consider, then, the implications of the findings reported here, firstly, with regard to teacher education.

Rapport with the Principal has been demonstrated to be pervasively associated with the satisfaction of the beginning teachers surveyed. In earlier discussions, it has been suggested that the initiation of Rapport may be the responsibility of either party, principal or teacher, but that the maintenance of Rapport is the responsibility of both parties. It is to the latter aspect that teacher training institutions might profitably address themselves. To be blunt, if a principal (or other supervisor) attempts to build Rapport among his staff, to what extent do the tertiary education courses which the beginning teacher has completed complement the principal's efforts? Are any courses offered which have, as a specified objective, the development of an understanding of the nature of Rapport, to be achieved through an experiential approach to the topic? If the interpretation of the findings of the present study is logical and meaningful, then prospective teachers would be required to take such a course. The experiential approach is considered essential, since active involvement in self-discovery in a group context leads to greater insights about human behavior and effective interpersonal interactions.

On this same point, it would seem equally advantageous if inservice education for principals were to incorporate experiential learning courses.

Turning now to the implications of the findings of this study for practice in the schools, two broad conclusions stand out. Firstly, involvement in decision making processes provides opportunities for the growth of beginning teacher Rapport with the Principal. Secondly, frequency of supervision experience is associated with beginning teacher satisfaction.

In both dimensions, the principal appears to be the key figure. He is in a position to initiate both participative decision making and more frequent supervision in his school. Given constraints on his own time, he has alternatives available to him. For example, more use might be made of staff decision bodies which would include beginning teachers; more use might be made of other supervisory personnel; more use might be made of the "buddy system". However, the principal cannot escape from his perceived role as the primary supervisor of many of the beginning teachers surveyed. Being available does not seem to be enough. A more deliberate policy of active interaction is called for in many cases, including organizational arrangements through which beginning teachers can sometimes be shown rather than told what to do and how to do it.

This point introduces the final implication to be discussed here. It may be that the whole system of inducting new practitioners into the teaching profession needs drastic revision. Perhaps a period of internship of, say, six months duration, is what is needed in place of the present "sink or swim" approach. But would beginning teacher interns then become better equipped as professional teachers and more satisfied with their chosen career in the first year or so of full-time practice? Would they become more flexible as teachers and be more willing and able to teach in other subject-areas and at other grade levels? Would they accept lower rates of pay if, say, half their teaching day was spent in observation?

The six or eight week period of internship offered by two of the jurisdictions included in the present study suffers from two disadvantages.[1] Firstly, it follows immediately the completion of the beginning teacher's University work, in order to coincide with the last weeks of the school year. Secondly, the daily rate of remuneration offered to the intern is too far below his earning capacity in alternative interim occupations. This approach to internship appears to take too much for granted, thereby leaving too much to be desired.

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[1] Source: The two Superintendencies.

In general conclusion, therefore, it would seem that the findings and conclusions presented in the course of this report have important and far-reaching implications for much of the theory and practice of educational administration.

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APPENDIX A

TEACHERS' AND PRINCIPALS' QUESTIONNAIRES

Department of Educational
Administration
Faculty of Education
The University of Alberta
Edmonton, Canada
T6G 2E1

Dear Teacher,

Thank you for agreeing to be included in my research study.

The attached questionnaire consists of four parts:

PART A - Personal data
PART B - Decision areas
PART C - Supervisory practices
PART D - An opinionnaire

All told, there are 83 items. I am thus asking you for about half an hour of your time. It is important that all items be answered; otherwise the data provided by your responses cannot be included in the research analysis.

Please take note that your replies will be kept confidential. The identifying code number is solely to enable me to identify which school staff you are on. It is in no way to be used to identify any respondent or school or school characteristic. Analysis of the data is to be by groups of teachers, not by individual teachers.

I hope that you will be able to find the time to complete the questionnaire and return it to me as soon as possible. (A stamped addressed envelope is provided.) As you reflect on your teaching service to this point in time, you will understand why I believe that the areas of research incorporated in this questionnaire are extremely important, and why I need your help and co-operation.

Yours sincerely,

M.T. Hewitson

MTH:pk
Encl.

TEACHERS' QUESTIONNAIRE

CODE NUMBER:

PART A: PERSONAL DATA

Please circle the appropriate number for each of the following items:

ITEM

1. Years of teaching experience.

Less than 1 year = 1
Less than 2 years = 2

2. Which route did you follow to gain teaching qualifications?

Undergraduate Program leading to the B.Ed. = 1
Undergraduate study in a faculty other than Education followed by Professional Diploma after Degree = 2

3. Main teaching level

Elementary = 1
Junior High = 2
Senior High = 3

4. Where were you trained for teaching?

University of Alberta = 1
University of Calgary = 2
University of Lethbridge = 3
Other Canadian University = 4
Non-Canadian University = 5

5. Was teaching your first choice as a career?

Yes = 1
No = 2

6. Do you expect to be a classroom teacher 5 years from now?

Yes = 1
Undecided = 2
No = 3

7. Sex

Male = 1
Married Female = 2
Female other than married = 3

8. Please write your age in years ☐☐

PART B: DECISION AREAS

This section of the questionnaire is designed to provide information about

(1) your actual involvement in a number of decision areas; and

(2) your preference with respect to your degree of involvement.

Two scoring keys are therefore provided for each item. Please circle the appropriate number of each scoring key for each item in accordance with the following keys:

Involvement Scoring key:

1 = Wholly the administration's decision (i.e. Central Office, Principal, Vice Principal, Department Heads, and/or outside Consultants)

2 = Mainly the administration's decision.

3 = The decision is shared between you and the administration, about 50:50.

4 = Mainly your decision.

5 = Wholly your decision.

Preference key:

1 = I would prefer to be less involved in the decision.

2 = I find my level of involvement to be about right.

3 = I would prefer to be more involved in the decision.

For convenience, an abbreviated reminder of the above two keys is at the head of each page.

Please be careful to answer every item. The pilot study revealed inadvertent omissions, especially in the Preference scale.

ITEM	Wholly administration	Mainly administration	About 50:50	My decision mainly	My decision wholly	Less involvement preferred	About right	More involvement preferred
1. The classes of students to which I am assigned	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3
2. The subject areas to which I am assigned	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3
3. The number of hours I teach	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3
4. The extra-curricular duties in which I am involved	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3
5. My non-teaching duties (playground duty, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3
6. The size of my class(es)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3
7. The grouping of students within my classroom	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3
8. The school's practice regarding the grouping of students (by streams, for team teaching, individualization of instruction, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3
9. The teaching strategies I employ	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3
10. The relationships established between students and me (my handling of discipline, praise, punishment, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3
11. The day-to-day content of the classroom curriculum	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3
12. The sequence in which the classroom curriculum is taught	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3
13. The purchase of materials, equipment, etc. and/or use of para-professionals i.e., any additions to the existing stock of instructional resources	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3
14. The placement (promotion or retention) of students	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3
15. The means used to evaluate and report student progress	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3
16. The timing of evaluative procedures in the classroom	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3
17. The determination of school rules and regulations for the student body	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3

If you so wish, briefly explain any other decision areas of importance to you. Enter numbered responses to indicate your present level of involvement in and satisfaction with that decision.

Please add any comment you wish to make.

PART C: SUPERVISORY PRACTICES

This section of the questionnaire is designed to provide information about

(1) supervisory practices which you may or may not have actually experienced in your school; and

(2) your preference with regard to the frequency of each practice.

Two scoring keys are again provided for each item. Please circle the number which most appropriately fits your own experience with, and preference for, each item in accordance with the following keys:

Frequency scoring key:

1 = Virtually never

2 = Once per half-year period

3 = 2-4 times per half-year period

4 = 5-7 times per half-year period

5 = 8 or more times per half-year period

Note: In order to establish a common basis for analysis of responses, I divide the school year into two half-year periods of approximately 100 school days each i.e. from the opening of school through to the end of January, and from February through to the summer holidays.

Preference key:

1 = I would prefer it to happen less than it does.

2 = I find this about right.

3 = I would prefer it to happen more than it does.

Again, an abbreviated reminder of the two keys heads each page.

Please be careful to answer every item.

Whom do you regard as your primary supervisor?

Principal	1
Vice-Principal	2
Department Head	3
Other	4

In the following questions, for "principal" read the person you have indicated in the above item.

In a half-year period:

ITEM	Virtually never	Once	3-4 times	5-7 times	8 or more times	Prefer less	About right	Prefer more
1. The principal initiates an evaluative visit to my classroom (by him or by other supervisor or inspector)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3
2. The principal arranges a consultative-advisory visit to my classroom (by him, or a colleague, or outside consultant)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3
3. I initiate an evaluative visit by the principal to my classroom	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3
4. I initiate a consultative-advisory visit by the principal to my classroom	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3
5. The principal "drops in" on me for administrative reasons (necessary at the time)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3
6. The principal "drops in" during my class to help me develop my professional competence	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3
7. The principal initiates a private interview with me (e.g. for a professional discussion	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3
8. I initiate a private conference with the principal (e.g. to discuss a professional problem)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3
9. Informal discussions or "chance" meetings with the principal resulting in professional or social discussions -- either in or out of school -- seem to happen	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3

KINDLY USE THE FOLLOWING KEY FOR THE REMAINING ITEMS:

1 = Virtually never
2 = Seldom
3 = Occasionally
4 = Often
5 = Always

In a half-year period:

	Virtually never	Seldom	Occasionally	Often	Always	Prefer less	About right	Prefer more
10. I find myself involved in staff meeting discussion	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3
11. Staff committees are formed to study school operations and problems	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3
12. I find myself included on such committees	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3

In a half-year period:

ITEM	Virtually never	Seldom	Occasionally	Often	Always	Prefer less	About right	Prefer more
13. It is arranged that I observe a senior colleague teaching a class	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3
14. The principal teaches a demonstration lesson for my benefit	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3
15. The principal personally assists me with regard to some classroom job such as lesson preparation, project planning, etc.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3
16. The principal promotes inservice education --e.g. attendance at institutes, workshops, conferences, part-time courses--with regard to me and my professional career	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3
17. The principal refers me to the professional literature	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3
18. The principal supports my classroom decisions (publicly if necessary) even though he may feel uneasy about the quality of the decision. (He may also take the matter up with me later)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3
19. The principal makes explicit to me his evaluation of the effort I am making by his use of praise or blame, encouragement or disapproval, etc.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3

. . . .

If you so wish, explain briefly any other supervisory practice which you have experienced, and enter an appropriate response.

Please add any comment you wish to make.

Please check to see that you have entered two responses for each item, one for your involvement and one for your preference.

PART D. TEACHER OPINIONNAIRE

(From "Manual for the Purdue Teacher Opinionnaire")

This section of the questionnaire seeks your opinion or feeling about each of 40 items. Please circle the response which most closely fits your own view in accordance with the following key:

A = Agree
PA = Partly Agree
PD = Partly Disagree
D = Disagree

Note that "faculty" is the teaching staff of the school.

ITEM	RESPONSE			
1. My principal has a reasonable understanding of the problems connected with my teaching assignment	A	PA	PD	D
2. My principal makes my work easier and more pleasant	A	PA	PD	D
3. I do not hesitate to discuss any problem with my principal	A	PA	PD	D
4. Our principal shows favoritism in his relations with teachers	A	PA	PD	D
5. My school principal supervises rather than "snoopervises" the teachers in our school	A	PA	PD	D
6. My principal tries to make me feel comfortable when he visits my classes	A	PA	PD	D
7. My principal shows real interest in my department [or special field]	A	PA	PD	D
8. My principal is concerned with the problems of the faculty and handles these problems sympathetically	A	PA	PD	D
9. My principal makes a real effort to maintain close contact with the faculty	A	PA	PD	D
10. My principal acts as though he is interested in me and my problems	A	PA	PD	D
11. Teachers' meetings as now conducted by our principal waste the time and energy of the staff	A	PA	PD	D

ITEM	RESPONSE:	Agree	Partly Agree	Partly Disagree	Disagree
12. The work of individual faculty members is appreciated and commended by our principal		A	PA	PD	D
13. The lines and methods of communication between teachers and the principal in our school are well developed and maintained		A	PA	PD	D
14. My principal makes effective use of the individual teacher's capacity and talent		A	PA	PD	D
15. My principal understands and recognizes good teaching procedures		A	PA	PD	D
16. Our principal promotes a sense of belonginess among the teachers in our school		A	PA	PD	D
17. Teachers feel free to criticize administrative policy at faculty meetings called by our principal		A	PA	PD	D
18. I feel that my work is judged fairly by my principal		A	PA	PD	D
19. Our principal's leadership in faculty meetings challenges and stimulates our professional growth		A	PA	PD	D
20. Teachers feel free to go to the principal about problems of personal and group welfare		A	PA	PD	D
21. My students appreciate the help I give them with their schoolwork		A	PA	PD	D
22. If I could earn as much money in another occupation, I would stop teaching		A	PA	PD	D
23. As far as I know, the other teachers think I am a good teacher		A	PA	PD	D
24. If I could plan my career again, I would choose teaching		A	PA	PD	D

ITEM	RESPONSE:	Agree	Partly Agree	Partly Disagree	Disagree
25. Most of the actions of students irritate me		A	PA	PD	D
26. As a teacher, I think I am as competent as most other teachers		A	PA	PD	D
27. I feel successful and competent in my present position		A	PA	PD	D
28. I am at a disadvantage professionally because other teachers are better prepared to teach than I am		A	PA	PD	D
29. I would recommend teaching as an occupation to students of high scholastic ability		A	PA	PD	D
30. My students regard me with respect and seem to have confidence in my professional ability		A	PA	PD	D
31. Teaching gives me a great deal of personal satisfaction		A	PA	PD	D
32. I feel that I am an important part of this school system		A	PA	PD	D
33. I really enjoy working with my students		A	PA	PD	D
34. I find my contacts with students, for the most part, highly satisfying and rewarding		A	PA	PD	D
35. I enjoy working with student organizations, clubs and societies		A	PA	PD	D
36. I love to teach		A	PA	PD	D
37. The stress and strain resulting from teaching makes teaching undesirable for me		A	PA	PD	D
38. To me there is no more challenging work than teaching		A	PA	PD	D

ITEM	RESPONSE:	Agree	Partly Agree	Partly Disagree	Disagree
39. Teaching enables me to make my greatest contribution to society		A	PA	PD	D
40. I am well satisfied with my present teaching position		A	PA	PD	D

. . . .

The present research data are now complete. If you would be willing to be contacted in a possible follow-up study in, say, three to five years' time, please print your name here: ______________________________
Your replies to this questionnaire remain in my personal safe-keeping until such a study is actually undertaken, and even then, will not be handed over to the follow-up researcher without your consent.

I would like to thank you for your assistance in the present study.

Department of Educational
Administration
Faculty of Education
The University of Alberta
Edmonton, Canada
T6G 2E1

Dear Principal,

Thank you for agreeing to participate in the research I am undertaking into the professional satisfaction of beginning teachers.

The enclosed questionnaire is designed to provide information about you and your school, as well as about

(1) the role which beginning teachers actually play in the decision making areas enumerated; and

(2) the supervisory practices which principals actually use in relation to beginning teachers.

Beginning teachers are here defined as those full-time teachers new to teaching who joined the school staff in the school year 1973-1974 plus those who joined this school year, 1974-1975.

Having been a school principal for seven years, I appreciate many of the difficulties involved in completing research questionnaires at any time. Now that it is my turn to be the researcher, I hope that you will oblige me by not omitting any response, knowing that your replies will be kept confidential.

You will note that the questionnaire has an identifying code number on the first page. The sole purpose of this is to enable me to identify which new teachers are on your staff. It is in no way to be used to identify any respondent or school or school characteristic.

When you have completed the questionnaire, would you kindly return it to me at your earliest convenience. A stamped, addressed envelope is enclosed.

Yours sincerely,

M.T. Hewitson

MTH:pk
Enc.

PRINCIPALS' QUESTIONNAIRE

PART A: PERSONAL AND SCHOOL DATA

Please circle the appropriate number for each of the following items:

ITEM		RESPONSE
1.	Sex	Male = 1
		Female = 2
2.	Type of school	Elementary = 1
		Elementary-Junior High = 2
		Junior High = 3
		Junior High-Senior High = 4
		Senior High = 5
		Grades 1-12 = 6
3.	Size of teaching staff, (Include full-time equivalent)	Less than 10 = 1
		11-20 = 2
		21-30 = 3
		31 or more = 4
4.	Sex composition of teaching staff	0 - 20% Male = 1
		21 - 40% Male = 2
		41 - 60% Male = 3
		61 - 80% Male = 4
		81 -100% Male = 5
5.	Please insert your years as a principal.	☐☐
6.	Please insert your years as principal of your present school.	☐☐
7.	Please insert the number of beginning teachers (less than 2 years' experience) who have transferred to your school since September, 1973.	☐☐

PART B: DECISIONS

This section of the questionnaire is designed to determine the involvement of beginning teachers in a number of decision making areas. Please check the response which most closely fits the situation in your school by circling the appropriate number for each item in accordance with the following key:

1 = Wholly the administration's decision (i.e., Central Office, principal, vice-principal, department heads and/or outside consultants).

2 = Mainly the administration's decision.

3 = The decision is shared between the administration and the beginning teacher, about 50:50.

4 = Mainly the beginning teacher's decisions.

5 = Wholly the beginning teacher's decision.

ITEM	Wholly Administration	Mainly Administration	About 50:50	Mainly Teacher	Wholly Teacher
1. The classes of students to which the beginning teacher is assigned	1	2	3	4	5
2. The subject area(s) to which the beginning teacher is assigned	1	2	3	4	5
3. The number of hours taught by the beginning teacher	1	2	3	4	5
4. The extra-curricular activities in which the beginning teacher is involved (sport, clubs, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5
5. The non-teaching duties of the beginning teacher (playground supervision, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5
6. The size of the beginning teacher's class(es)	1	2	3	4	5
7. The grouping of students within the teacher's classroom	1	2	3	4	5
8. The school's practice regarding the grouping of students (by streams, for team teaching, individualization of instruction, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5

	ITEM	Wholly Administration	Mainly Administration	About 50:50	Mainly Teacher	Wholly Teacher
9.	The teaching strategies employed by the beginning teacher	1	2	3	4	5
10.	The relationships established between the beginning teacher and students (the teacher's handling of discipline, praise, punishment, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5
11.	The day-to-day content of the classroom curriculum	1	2	3	4	5
12.	The sequence in which the classroom curriculum is taught	1	2	3	4	5
13.	The purchase of materials, equipment, etc. and/or use of para-professionals i.e. any changes in or additions to the existing stock of instructional resources	1	2	3	4	5
14.	The placement (promotion or retention) of students	1	2	3	4	5
15.	The means used to evaluate and report student progress	1	2	3	4	5
16.	The timing of evaluative procedures in the classroom	1	2	3	4	5
17.	The determination of school rules and regulations for the student body	1	2	3	4	5

. . . .

If you so wish, explain briefly any other decision areas of importance to beginning teachers, and enter a check response:

Please add any comment you wish to make.

PART C: SUPERVISORY PRACTICES

This section of the questionnaire enumerates specific supervisory practices which principals may or may not actually employ in their interaction with beginning teachers.

Two difficulties may arise in answering. Firstly, the case of a principal who has a number of beginning teachers on staff and who individualizes his supervision of each. In such a case, I ask you to report the frequency with which you typically employ a particular practice. It may be helpful, for example, to think of the "average" beginning teacher with whom you have worked over the last year or so, and enter the typical or average frequency with which you have employed the practice identified in each item in your interaction with him. In responding, you may rule out the extreme case where you found it necessary to employ unusual supervisory practice.

Secondly, the fact that schools are in session for differing time periods raises the problem of whether to use a term or semester as a basis for responses. In order to establish a common basis, I divide the school year into two half-year periods of approximately 100 school days each i.e., from the opening of school through to the end of January, and from February through to the summer holidays.

Accepting this division of the school year, please check the response which most closely fits your supervisory behavior by circling the appropriate number for each item in accordance with the following key:

1 = Virtually never

2 = Once per half-year period

3 = 2-4 times per half-year period

4 = 5-7 times per half-year period

5 = 8 or more times per half year period

During a typical half-year period:

ITEM	Virtually never	Once	2-4 times	5-7 times	8 or more times
1. I initiate an evaluative visit to the beginning teacher's classroom (by me or other supervisor	1	2	3	4	5
2. I arrange with the beginning teacher a consultative-advisory visit to his classroom (by me, or a colleague, or an outside consultant)	1	2	3	4	5
3. The beginning teacher initiates an evaluative visit by me (or other supervisor) to his classroom	1	2	3	4	5
4. The beginning teacher initiates a consultative-advisory visit by me (or other supervisor) to his classroom	1	2	3	4	5
5. I "drop in on" the beginning teacher for administrative reasons (necessary at the time)	1	2	3	4	5
6. I "drop in" during the beginning teacher's class to help him develop his professional competence	1	2	3	4	5
7. I initiate a private interview with the beginning teacher (e.g. for a professional discussion)	1	2	3	4	5
8. The beginning teacher initiates a private conference with me (e.g. to discuss a professional problem)	1	2	3	4	5
9. Informal discussions or "chance" meetings with the beginning teacher resulting in professional or social discussions -- either in or out of school -- seem to happen	1	2	3	4	5

Would you kindly use the following key for the remaining items:

1 = Virtually never
2 = Seldom
3 = Occasionally
4 = Often
5 = Always

During a typical half-year period:

ITEM		Virtually never	Seldom	Occasionally	Often	Always
10.	I ensure the beginning teacher is involved in staff meeting discussion	1	2	3	4	5
11.	I use staff committees to study professional issues	1	2	3	4	5
12.	I ensure the beginning teacher is included on such committees	1	2	3	4	5
13.	I arrange for the beginning teacher to observe a senior colleague teaching class	1	2	3	4	5
14.	I teach a demonstration lesson for the benefit of the beginning teacher	1	2	3	4	5
15.	I assist the beginning teacher personally with regard to some classroom job such as test preparation, project planning, etc.	1	2	3	4	5
16.	I promote inservice education -- e.g. attendance at institutes, workshops, conferences, part-time courses -- with regard to the beginning teacher and his professional career	1	2	3	4	5
17.	I refer the beginning teacher to the professional literature	1	2	3	4	5

ITEM	Virtually never	Seldom	Occasionally	Often	Always
18. I support the beginning teacher's classroom decisions (publicly if necessary) even if I feel uneasy about the quality of the decision. (I may also take the matter up with the teacher later)	1	2	3	4	5
19. I make explicit to the beginning teacher my evaluation of the effort he is making by my use of praise or blame, encouragement or disapproval etc.	1	2	3	4	5

……

If you so wish, explain briefly any other supervisory practice which you use in respect of beginning teachers, and enter a check response.

Please add any comment you wish to make.

Thank you for your cooperation.

APPENDIX B

THE PILOT STUDY

THE PILOT STUDY

The pilot study was carried out in a county jurisdiction about 100 miles south of Edmonton, located on the fringe of Red Deer (pop. c. 30,000). The eight jurisdictions encircling Edmonton averaged 10.5 schools, the mean size of the teaching staff being 19. The pilot school system included 11 schools with a teaching staff mean size of 23. Beginning teachers numbered 23, representing over 9% of the system's teaching force.

The system superintendent agreed to the pilot study, as did all qualifying principals. The researcher delivered the instruments to each respondent, including stamped envelopes for the return of the questionnaires. Respondents were asked to comment freely on format, wording, or other "technical" problems encountered, as well as on bias perceived or difficulties of item interpretation. Responses were received from 100% of principals (n = 9) and from 87% of beginning teachers (n = 23).

In addition to changes initiated by the comments of respondents, the Teachers' Questionnaire was factor analyzed to reveal whether the categories (Work Load, etc.) were in fact reasonably consistent internally and to check whether inter-category correlations were sufficiently low to make category scores meaningful in terms of inter-category discrimination.

The results of two factor analyses are reported in Table 1 and Table 2.

FACTOR ANALYSIS 1: Decision making involvement

The 17 decision items factored adequately into 5 factors using teachers' responses. The 5 factors account for over 68% of the total variance, as shown in Table 1. These factors may be described as follows:

1. Job demands (Column 2): Teaching involves teaching subject lessons to students grouped into classes. It often involves, in addition, non-teaching duties. Decisions must be made about assigning teachers to classes and to other duties. Varying demands are also placed on the teacher in respect of the school's practice regarding student grouping, whether heterogeneous classes, individualized instruction, team teaching, etc.

2. Core activities (Column 1): Core teaching activities incorporate the teaching strategies employed by the teacher, the instructional aids (and aides) available for use, and the evaluation and placement of students. Decisions must be made about these core activities.

3. Core content (Column 3): Core content includes both the classroom curriculum and extra-curricular (or co-curricular) activities. Decisions must be made about content and sequence of both dimensions of the school curriculum.

4. Class relationships (Column 5): Grouping of students within class contribute to the relationships which a teacher establishes with students, as does the teacher's handling of discipline, praise etc. Decisions must be made in respect of establishing, maintaining or changing teacher-student relationships.

5. School organization factors (Column 4): School organization sees to it that classes are taken under the direction of teachers. Hence decisions must be made as to the teacher's class contact hours, the size of classes, and the school-wide regulations intended to govern and control student behavior.

TABLE 1

FACTOR ANALYSIS I: DECISION MAKING INVOLVEMENT (BEGINNING TEACHER RESPONSES: N = 20)

COMMUNALITIES		1	2	3	4	5
1	0.808	0.233	0.852	-0.114	-0.076	-0.098
2	0.817	-0.069	0.896	0.088	0.015	-0.044
3	0.774	0.059	0.248	0.059	-0.783	-0.304
4	0.855	-0.433	0.009	0.737	0.220	-0.276
5	0.441	-0.207	0.511	0.339	0.151	-0.015
6	0.513	-0.166	0.246	0.303	0.576	0.031
7	0.627	0.334	0.202	-0.037	0.229	0.649
8	0.704	-0.344	0.612	0.015	0.207	0.411
9	0.717	0.668	-0.099	0.175	0.479	0.014
10	0.764	-0.223	-0.383	0.180	-0.061	0.729
11	0.727	0.094	0.044	0.749	0.117	0.379
12	0.761	0.271	0.058	0.819	0.038	0.105
13	0.427	0.373	-0.001	0.248	0.013	0.476
14	0.569	0.626	0.045	-0.067	0.191	0.366
15	0.714	0.835	-0.122	0.016	-0.020	-0.039
16	0.617	0.753	0.055	0.013	-0.215	0.041
17	0.763	0.310	0.371	0.204	0.684	-0.141
	11.599	3.019	2.644	2.178	1.917	1.841
PERCENT OF COMMON VARIANCE						
	100.000	26,030	22.794	18.778	16.527	15.871
PERCENT OF TOTAL VARIANCE						
	68.232	17.761	15.553	12.812	11.277	10.829

CORE ACTIVITY

9. Teaching strategies
14. Student placement
15. Student evaluation
16. Timing of evaluation

CORE CONTENT

4. Extra curricular
11. Curriculum content
12. Curriculum sequence

CLASS RELATIONSHIPS

7. Class grouping
10. Class discipline
13. Teaching aids

JOB DEMANDS

1. Classes assigned
2. Subject areas assigned
5. Other duties
8. Student grouping for team teaching, individualized instruction etc.

SCHOOL ORGANIZATION FACTORS

3. Class time
6. Class size
17. School rules

FACTOR ANALYSIS 2: Supervisory Practices

As certain comments suggested the need to identify the "primary supervisor" of teacher respondents, a question was added to this section of the final questionnaire to elicit this information.

There was also some confusion in the minds of respondents over the original item 10, i.e., the use of staff meetings to discuss professional issues and concerns. This item was deleted when teachers' responses were factor analyzed, and was deleted from the final form of the questionnaires. This left 19 items which factored into 4 factors which account for over 68% of the total variance, as shown in Table 2. These factors may be described as follows:

1. Technical Supervision (Column 2): Principal-initiated class visitations, whether nominally evaluative, or consultative, and principal-initiated demonstration lessons may all appear to beginning teachers to be closely related forms of supervision. Relationships here are likely formalized in the teacher's eyes.

2. Supportive Supervision (Column 1): Teacher-initiated class visitations, private conferences with the principal, including those where teacher decisions and the principals' personal opinion of teacher effort may be discussed, general discussion in staff meetings, the principal's assistance with projected classwork, and the principal's commendation of inservice activity or the professional literature suggest less formal interaction with the emphasis on helping activities.

3. Incidental Supervision (Column 3): Class visitations which are clearly for administrative purposes, chance meetings with the principal, and teacher-initiated class visitations for evaluation of performance suggest that the teacher feels in a low-threat situation -- such interaction with the principal occurs incidentally in the course of the teacher's real work with students.

TABLE 2

FACTOR ANALYSIS: SUPERVISORY PRACTICES
(BEGINNING TEACHER RESPONSES: N = 20)

	COMMUNALITIES	1	2	3	4
1	0.842	0.294	0.822	0.050	0.276
2	0.772	0.163	0.852	0.003	0.142
3	0.670	-0.063	0.464	0.668	0.073
4	0.512	0.595	-0.165	0.335	0.136
5	0.789	0.182	-0.040	0.823	-0.278
6	0.615	-0.026	0.625	-0.109	0.461
7	0.821	0.790	-0.230	-0.080	0.371
8	0.628	0.569	-0.444	-0.326	0.023
9	0.814	0.427	-0.186	0.770	0.067
10	0.762	0.704	0.179	0.360	0.322
11	0.688	0.008	0.221	-0.164	0.782
12	0.661	0.192	-0.057	0.102	0.781
13	0.562	-0.059	0.728	0.062	-0.158
14	0.752	0.263	0.624	-0.535	-0.091
15	0.669	0.775	0.234	-0.035	-0.115
16	0.543	0.518	0.286	0.231	0.374
17	0.809	0.529	0.015	0.576	0.443
18	0.617	0.698	0.346	0.096	0.034
19	0.426	0.548	0.167	0.306	-0.065
	12.951	4,176	3.607	2.901	2.267
PERCENT OF COMMON VARIANCE					
	100.000	32.246	27.850	22.397	17.507
PERCENT OF TOTAL VARIANCE					
	68.165	21.980[a]	18.984[b]	15.267[c]	11.933[d]

SUPPORTIVE SUPERVISION[a]

4. Teacher-initiated visit for consultation
7.)Private conferences
8.)with principal
10. Staff meeting discussion
15. Help with projected classwork
16. Promotion of inservice
17. Literature referral
18. Support of teacher decisions
19. Explicit recognition

TECHNICAL SUPERVISION[b]

1. Principal-initiated visit for evaluation
2. Principal-initiated visit for consultation
6. Principal drops in for competence development
13. Colleague observation lesson arranged
14. Principal's demonstration lesson

INCIDENTAL SUPERVISION[c]

3. Teacher initiated visit for evaluation
5. Principal visits for administrative purposes
9. Informal meetings

COLLEGIAL COMMITTEE[d]

11. Staff committees formed
12. Beginning teacher inclusion

4. Collegial Committee Work (Column 4): A professionally-oriented collegial relationship is suggested here: the principal involves his teachers, thereby promoting their professionalism and growth of self-supervision.

The above factor descriptions are intended only to exemplify the desirability and feasibility of following the procedures of the Pilot Study in the study proper. In fact, the Pilot Study had demonstrated:

1. The means of achieving a satisfactorily high rate of return of questionnaires;
2. The feasibility of analyzing questionnaire items into meaningful and discriminating factor categories; and
3. The possibilities of and information for improving the validity and reliability of the research instruments.

However, the major hypotheses of the study itself were not tested, and no statistical analyses of the pilot study data were made as it was felt that the number of responses did not warrant exhaustive analyses.

APPENDIX C

THE PROFESSIONAL SATISFACTION INDEX

APPENDIX C

THE PROFESSIONAL SATISFACTION INDEX

The Professional Satisfaction Index (PSI) is an index of the satisfaction or dissatisfaction which may be experienced as a result of the gratification or nongratification of professional autonomy needs and wants. It indicates both the direction and strength of the source of professional satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Professional Satisfaction is conceptualized as one element of the overall satisfaction which teachers, for example, may feel with teaching as a career, but the PSI itself is not an index of Career Satisfaction.

In this study, the PSI scale ranges from -12 through zero to +12. The selection of 12 as the terminal points of the scale is a convenience which arises from the fact that the decision making areas and supervision categories determined by the factor analyses (Chapter V, Section IV) happened to consist of either 2, 3 or 4 items. Had a factor of 5 items occurred, the terminal points of the scale may have been 60. Obviously terminal points could be converted to percentages if felt necessary.

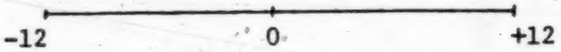
It will be recalled that teachers were asked to respond on a preference scale to each of the items included in the Decision Making and Supervisory Practices parts of the questionnaire (Appendix A). It is assumed that a response of 2 (= About right) reflects teacher satisfaction and that a response of 1 (= Prefer less) or 3 (= Prefer more) reflects both some dissatisfaction and one reason for it. Teachers' responses may then be scaled on the PSI as follows:

A response of 1 = a negative score — the teacher wants less;

A response of 2 = 0 -- the teacher is satisfied;

A response of 3 = a positive score -- the teacher wants more.

The PSI scale thus looks like this:



Suppose that, in a four-item factor, the teacher responds with two '2's and two '1's. His two '2's scale as 0, and his two '1's as -3 each. His factor score on the PSI scale is -6.

Now suppose that, in a three-item factor, the teacher responds with a '2' and two '3's. In this case, each '3' response is worth 4 on the PSI scale, and the teacher's PSI for that factor is +8.

In a two-item factor, a '1' or a '3' response is worth 6 on the PSI scale. (Note, again, that scores could also be converted to percentages).

It is clear that if the teacher responds with a '1' and a '3' on items in the same factor, then he cannot be scaled on the PSI. For example, a '1, 2, 3' set of responses cannot be averaged into three '2's: the latter indicates a high degree of satisfaction in respect of the factor, whereas the teacher is obviously dissatisfied on two out of three items. However, it is logical to argue that, if the items really belong within the factor i.e., if they really are measuring the same "factor", then a '1' and a '3' will not occur together in that factor's items. Note that the PSI concept is superfluous in the case of a single item factor.

In this study, there were 51 instances (out of a possible 2120 factor scores) where a '1' and a '3' occurred within a factor. Of the

51 inconsistencies, 25 have been explained (Chapter IV, Section IV) and attributed to defects in the questionnaire. Item 5 of the Supervisory Practices questionnaire (Appendix A, Teachers' Questionnaire), The principal "drops in" during class for administrative reasons, accounts for an additional 18 instances. The fact that it is reasonable for teachers to want less interruptions during class (=1) and at the same time want more involvement in staff meeting discussions or staff committee work (=3) points to a weakness in the factor, in the view of the present writer. As explained in Chapter IV, Section IV, this item should have been discarded from the analyses.

Thus it may be fairly concluded that, given an improved questionnaire instrument, very few within-factor inconsistencies would have occurred. In other words, respondents might indicate preferences of '1, 1, 2' or '2, 3, 3', but very rarely indicate a '1, 3' preference combination within a factor. Logically inconsistent within-factor responses were excluded from the present data analyses.

Use of the PSI enables bar charts to be drawn. For example, Figure 1 represents the overall satisfaction of the beginning teachers surveyed in this study with respect to their involvement in decision making.

A brief interpretation of Figure 1 is that, overall, there was a negligible demand for less involvement in decision making by these beginning teachers. A considerable degree of satisfaction was expressed, but there was also a substantial desire for more involvement, including some strong expression of this desire.

It is more fruitful to examine the position with respect to each decision making area. The five PSI bar charts which follow

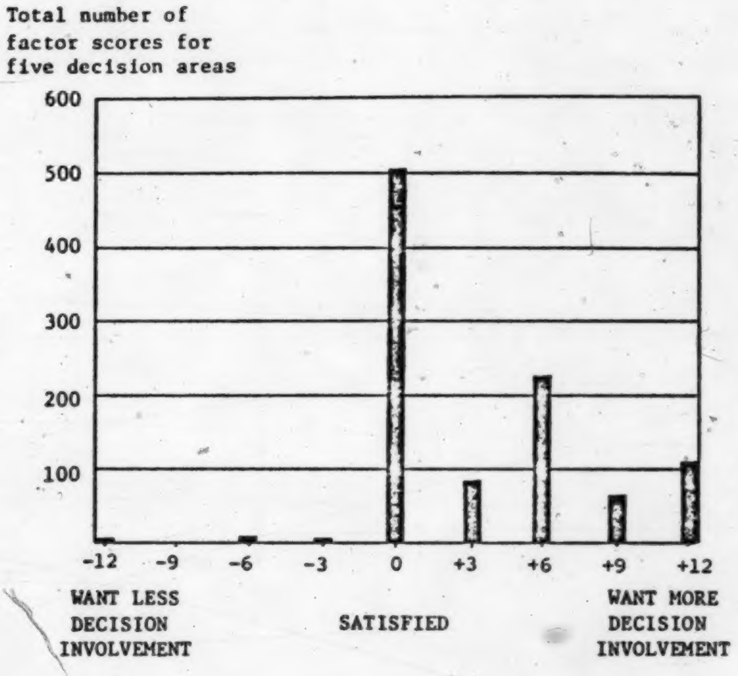


Figure 1. The Professional Satisfaction Index. Direction and Strength of Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction of 213 Beginning Teachers in Their Decision Making Involvement.

constitute the actual PSI scores of the beginning teachers surveyed for this study. (Figure 2). The n varies because inconsistent and omitted responses are excluded from the analysis, and the number of exclusions varies among the factors.

Inkpen et al.[1] recently suggested the desirability of prioritorizing teachers' demands for greater participation in decision making. It

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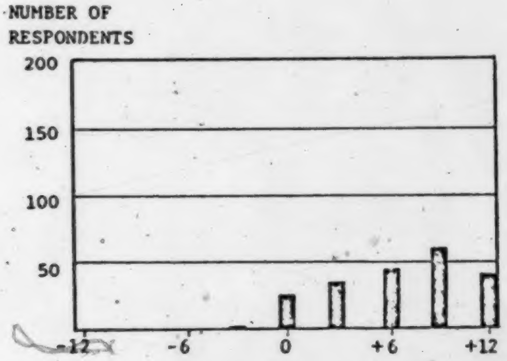
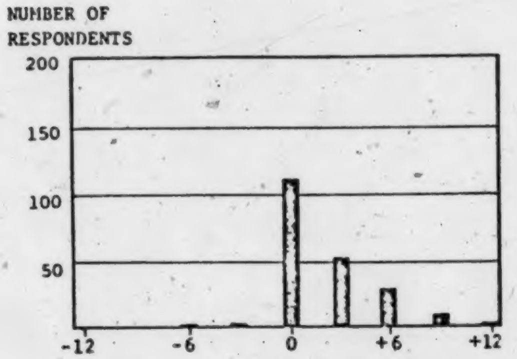
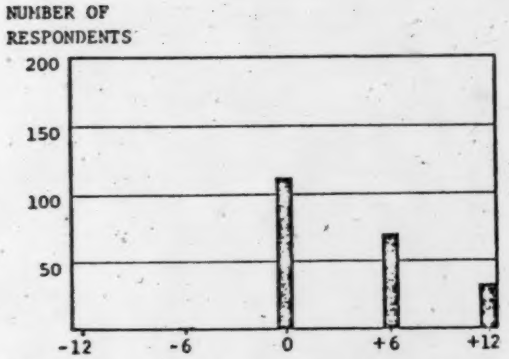
[1] Inkpen, W.E. et al. "Elementary Teacher Participation in Educational Decision-Making in Newfoundland", in The Canadian Administrator XIV:3:1975, page 5.



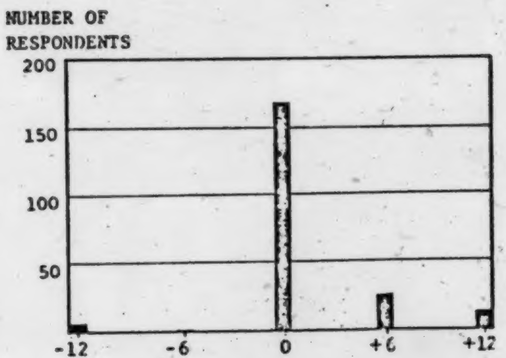
FACTOR 1 (N = 206): TEACHING LOAD



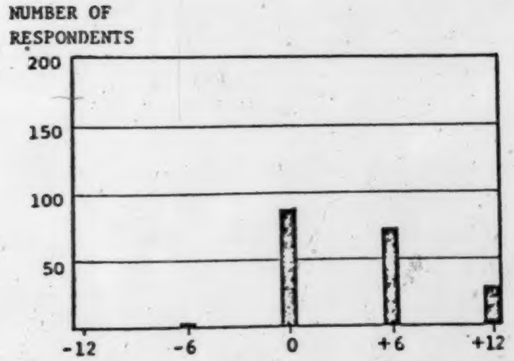
FACTOR 2 (N = 203): CORE PROFESSIONAL INTERACTION



FACTOR 3 (N = 209): STUDENT DEPLOYMENT



FACTOR 4 (N = 211): CLASSROOM CURRICULUM



FACTOR 5 (N = 198): WORK-ASSOCIATED TASKS

KEY

NEGATIVE SCORES indicate respondents who want less decision making involvement.

ZERO SCORES indicate respondents who are fully satisfied.

POSITIVE SCORES indicate respondents who want more decision making involvement.

Figure 2. The Professional Satisfaction Index. Direction and Strength of Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction of 213 Beginning Teachers in Each of Five Decision Making Areas.

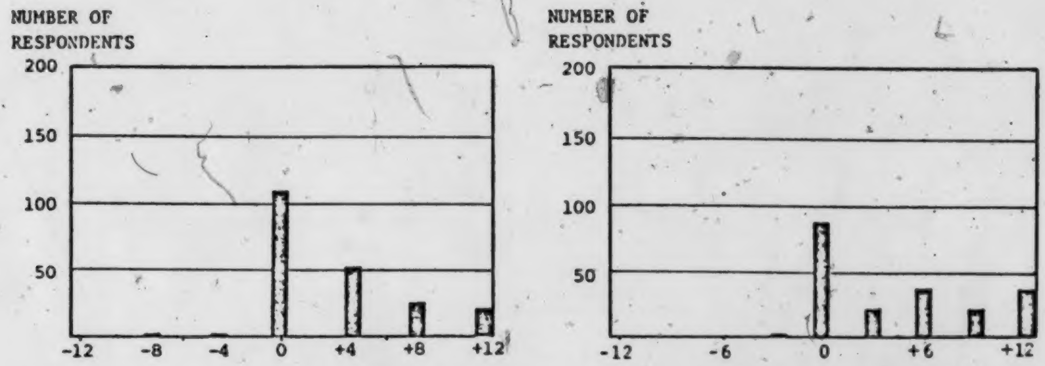
can readily be seen that many of the teachers surveyed in this study place Factor 1 at the head of their list. They want more involvement in decisions involving their Teaching Load, and they want it strongly.

Decisions concerning Student Deployment (Factor 3) and Work-Associated Tasks (Factor 5) rank next. About half the teachers surveyed want more involvement in both these areas, and express quite a strong desire in this regard.

On the other hand, with respect to decisions which concern their Core Professional Interaction with students (Factor 2) and the Classroom Curriculum (Factor 4), the teachers surveyed appear to be more satisfied: their desire for greater involvement in these decision areas is generally much weaker.

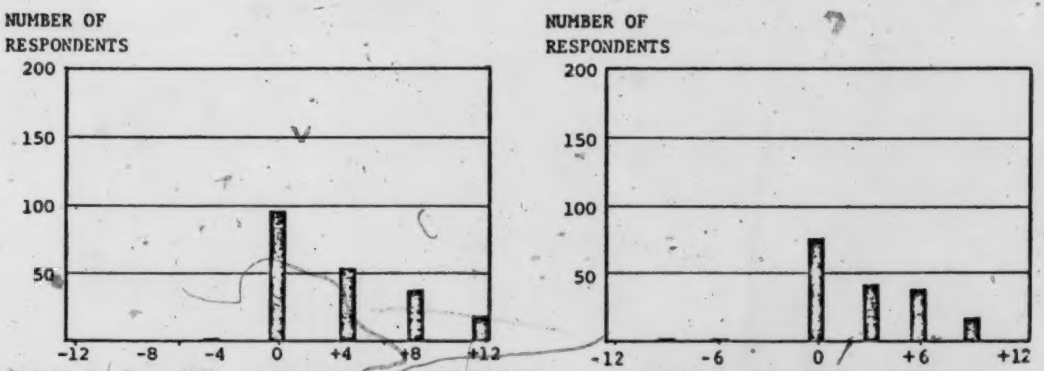
The position with regard to supervision may be illustrated by use of a Satisfaction scale which is similar to the PSI scale, as shown in Figure 3. Because the concept of Professional Satisfaction proved to be inapplicable in the supervision dimension (as explained in Section VII of Chapter VI, supra p. 202), the findings of the study (Figures 3 and 4 below) cannot be interpreted in terms of Professional Satisfaction, only in terms of beginning teacher satisfaction with the frequency of supervision experience.

Figure 3 reveals a sample of teachers who are, overall, only moderately satisfied. The source of dissatisfaction is not that they feel over-supervised but under-supervised. Figure 3 clearly shows, for example, that most of the teachers would prefer to have their teaching competence developed much more by example than is at present the case (Factor 10).



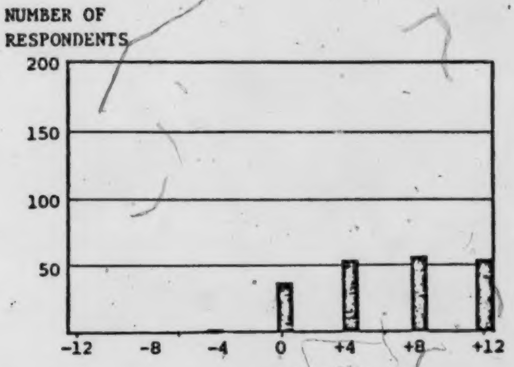
FACTOR 6 (N = 211): FACE TO FACE DISCUSSION

FACTOR 7 (N = 207): FORMAL CLASSROOM VISITATIONS



FACTOR 8 (N = 209): PROMOTION OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

FACTOR 9 (N = 187): COLLEGIAL PROFESSIONALIZATION



FACTOR 10 (N = 203): DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHING COMPETENCE BY EXAMPLE

KEY

NEGATIVE SCORES indicate respondents who want less supervision experience

ZERO SCORES indicate respondents who are fully satisfied

POSITIVE SCORES indicate respondents who want more supervision experience

Figure 3. An Index of Satisfaction with Supervision Experience. Direction and Strength of Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction of 213 Beginning Teachers in Each of Five Categories of Supervisory Practices.

Their next preference is for more Formal Classroom Visitations (Factor 7). Consultative visits as well as evaluative visits are included in this factor.

In Factors 6 and 8, a stronger desire for more frequent supervision is expressed than is the case in Factor 9. Although the amount of satisfaction is greater in the former two factors, so is the strength of the dissatisfaction expressed. Many of the beginning teachers of the sample would like more frequent Face-to-Face Discussion and would like more frequent promotion of their longer term professional growth.

The satisfaction pattern of Factor 9 indicates that the teachers surveyed were least dissatisfied with the frequency with which they experienced Collegial Professionalization. However, an additional 20 responses had to be excluded from the analysis of this factor.

Figure 4 presents the composite picture of the 213 beginning teachers' satisfaction with the frequency of their supervision experience.

In Figure 4, considerable satisfaction is again expressed by the beginning teachers surveyed. It is also clear, however, that with regard to supervision, many of them want more than they perceive themselves to be presently receiving.

Although the concept of Professional Satisfaction proved to be inapplicable to the sample of respondents in the supervision dimension, the findings presented above, which associate beginning teacher satisfaction with supervision with relatively high frequencies of supervision, are in no way invalidated.

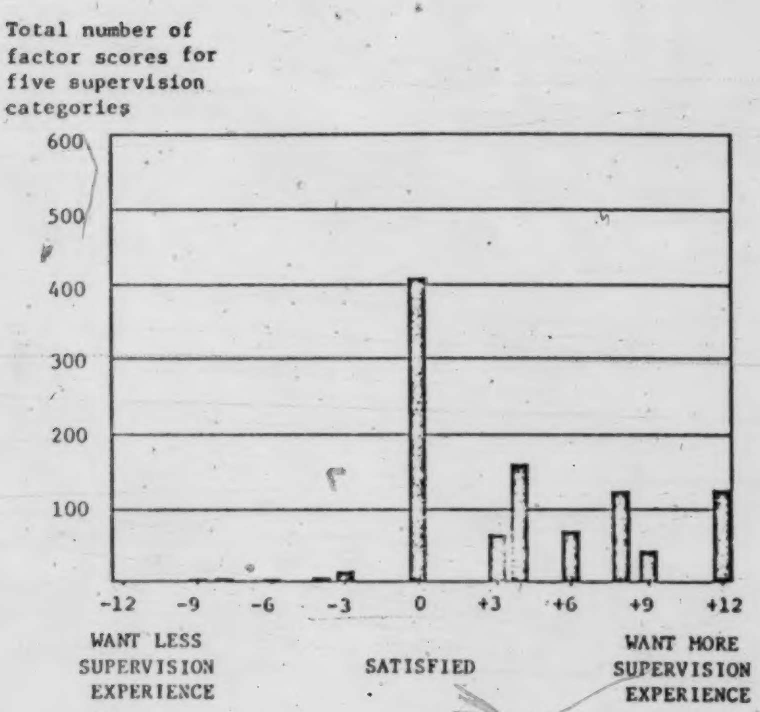


Figure 4. An Index of Satisfaction with Supervision Experience. Direction and Strength of Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction of 213 Beginning Teachers with the Frequency of Their Supervision Experience.

In the study itself, the PSI and the Satisfaction with Supervision Experience Index are used to categorize teachers into "Want Less", "Satisfied", and "Want More" groups. Included in the Satisfied group are all who are no more than $33\frac{1}{3}\%$ dissatisfied on the factor being investigated. This is an arbitrary decision, and means in practice that, for eight of the ten factors, those falling within the range of -4 to +4 on the Satisfaction Scales are classed as Satisfied. With respect to Factors 7 and 10, however, only fully satisfied beginning teachers (those who score '0' on the scale) and completely dissatisfied beginning teachers (those who score 12 on the scale) are included in the analysis. The reason for this decision is explained in Chapter VI, Section VII, of the thesis.

APPENDIX D

CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS: COMPARISON BETWEEN PRINCIPALS' PERCEPTIONS OF BEGINNING TEACHER DECISION MAKING INVOLVEMENT AND SUPERVISION EXPERIENCE AND THE TEACHERS' OWN PERCEPTIONS

(N Principals = 70; N Beginning Teachers = 212)

DECISION MAKING

ITEM	r	Prob.	
1	0.30	0.01	**
2	0.07	0.54	
3	-0.07	0.56	
4	0.28	0.02	**
5	0.35	0.00	**
6	-0.11	0.37	
7	0.14	0.25	
8	0.28	0.02	**
9	0.00	0.99	
10	0.07	0.58	
11	0.04	0.77	
12	0.11	0.36	
13	-0.24	0.05	
14	0.26	0.03	**
15	-0.16	0.18	
16	0.12	0.33	
17	0.24	0.04	**

SUPERVISION EXPERIENCE

ITEM	r	Prob.	
1	0.27	0.02	**
2	0.08	0.49	
3	0.15	0.22	
4	0.02	0.85	
5	0.12	0.33	
6	0.21	0.09	
7	0.09	0.46	
8	0.09	0.44	
9	0.15	0.22	
10	0.35	0.00	**
11	0.17	0.16	
12	0.06	0.63	
13	0.38	0.00	**
14	0.38	0.00	**
15	0.21	0.08	
16	0.15	0.21	
17	0.20	0.10	
18	0.21	0.08	
19	0.20	0.10	

Notes:

1. The items are the questionnaire items in Parts B and C of the Teachers' and Principals' Questionnaires (Appendix A).
2. The average of beginning teachers' responses is calculated for each school staff, item by item, and compared with the response of the principal of the school.
3. For the 70 schools included in this analysis, r is computed item by item, and the associated level of probability also reported.

** Significant positive agreement in the perceptions of the two groups is shown in 10 of the 36 items.

APPENDIXES E-I

CHI SQUARE TESTS
SIGNIFICANT FINDINGS

APPENDIX E

RAPPORT WITH THE PRINCIPAL AND NOMINAL DATA ITEMS

APPENDIX E1 RAPPORT AND YEARS AS A PRINCIPAL

		Years the principal has been a principal		
		5 or less	More than 5	TOTALS
Rapport with the Principal: beginning teacher responses by schools (N = 70)	LOW	31.0% (9)	56.1% (23)	45.7% (32)
	HIGH	69.0% (20)	43.9% (18)	54.3% (38)

$X^2 = 4.30$ Df = 1 Probability = 0.038

APPENDIX E2 RAPPORT AND YEARS OF PRINCIPALSHIP OF PRESENT SCHOOL

		Years as principal of present school		
		5 or less	More than 5	TOTALS
Rapport with the Principal: beginning teacher responses by schools (N = 70)	LOW	30.2% (13)	70.4% (19)	45.7% (32)
	HIGH	69.8% (30)	29.6% (8)	54.3% (38)

$X^2 = 10.77$ Df = 1 Probability = 0.001

APPENDIX E3 RAPPORT AND TEACHER EXPECTATIONS

		Teacher expectations for 5 years from now			
		To be a class teacher	Uncertain	Not to be a class teacher	TOTALS
Rapport with the Principal: beginning teacher responses (N = 213)	LOW	27.6% (27)	49.4% (40)	52.9% (18)	39.9% (85)
	HIGH	72.4% (71)	50.6% (41)	47.1% (16)	60.1% (128)

$X^2 = 11.68$ Df = 2 Probability = 0.003

APPENDIX F

DECISION AREAS AND NOMINAL DATA ITEMS

APPENDIX F1 TEACHING LOAD DECISIONS AND YEARS OF EXPERIENCE

		Years of teaching experience		
		In 1st year	In 2nd year	TOTALS
Decision making involvement: beginning teacher responses (N = 213)	LOW	65.8% (75)	40.4% (40)	54.0% (115)
	HIGH	34.2% (39)	59.6% (59)	46.0% (98)

$X^2 = 13.75$ Df = 1 Probability = 0.0002

APPENDIX F2 STUDENT DEPLOYMENT DECISIONS AND YEARS AS A PRINCIPAL

		Years the principal has been a principal		
		5 or less	More than 5	TOTALS
Decision making involvement: beginning teacher responses by schools (N = 70)	LOW	31.0% (9)	58.5% (24)	47.1% (33)
	HIGH	69.0% (20)	41.5% (17)	52.9% (37)

$X^2 = 5.16$ Df = 1 Probability = 0.023

APPENDIX F3 STUDENT DEPLOYMENT DECISIONS AND YEARS OF PRINCIPALSHIP OF PRESENT SCHOOL

		Years as principal of present school		
		5 or less	More than 5	TOTALS
Decision making involvement: beginning teacher responses by schools (N = 70)	LOW	32.6% (14)	70.4% (19)	47.1% (33)
	HIGH	67.4% (29)	29.6% (8)	52.9% (37)

$X^2 = 9.52$ Df = 1 Probability = 0.002

APPENDIX F4 STUDENT DEPLOYMENT DECISIONS AND STAFF SEX COMPOSITION

		Staff sex composition				
		0.20% Male	20-40% Male	40-60% Male	60-100% Male	TOTALS
Decision making involvement: beginning teacher responses by schools (N = 70)	LOW	29.4% (5)	32.0% (8)	75.0% (12)	66.7% (8)	47.1% (33)
	HIGH	70.6% (12)	68.0% (17)	25.0% (4)	33.3% (4)	52.9% (37)

$X^2 = 11.26$, Df = 3 Probability = 0.01

APPENDIX F5 STUDENT DEPLOYMENT DECISIONS AND TEACHING LEVEL

		Present teaching level			
		Elementary Grades	Junior High School	Senior High School	TOTALS
Decision making involvement: beginning teacher responses (N = 212)	LOW	36.8% (39)	68.1% (47)	70.3% (26)	52.8% (112)
	HIGH	63.2% (67)	31.9% (22)	29.7% (11)	47.2% (100)

$X^2 = 21.93$ Df = 2 Probability = 0.0001

APPENDIX F6 CLASSROOM CURRICULUM DECISIONS AND TEACHING LEVEL

		Present teaching level			
		Elementary Grades	Junior High School	Senior High School	TOTALS
Decision making involvement: beginning teacher responses (N = 212)	LOW	64.2% (68)	49.3% (34)	43.2% (16)	55.7% (118)
	HIGH	35.8% (38)	50.7% (35)	56.8% (21)	44.3% (94)

$X^2 = 6.55$ Df = 2 Probability = 0.04

APPENDIX F7 WORK-ASSOCIATED TASKS DECISIONS AND TEACHING LEVEL

Decision making involvement: beginning teacher responses (N = 212)		Present teaching level			
		Elementary Grades	Junior High School	Senior High School	TOTALS
	LOW	56.6% (60)	50.7% (35)	21.6% (8)	48.6% (103)
	HIGH	43.4% (46)	49.3% (34)	78.4% (29)	51.4% (109)

$X^2 = 13.62$ Df = 2 Probability = 0.001

APPENDIX G

SATISFACTION WITH DECISION MAKING INVOLVEMENT IN DECISION AREAS AND NOMINAL DATA ITEMS

APPENDIX G1 SATISFACTION WITH INVOLVEMENT IN DECISION AREAS AND TEACHER EXPECTATIONS

		Teacher expectations for 5 years from now			
		To be a class teacher	Uncertain	Not to be a class teacher	TOTALS
Satisfaction with degree of decision involvement: beginning teacher responses	SATISFIED	64.2% (61)	51.9% (41)	29.4% (10)	53.8% (112)
	WANT MORE	35.8% (34)	48.1% (38)	70.6% (24)	46.2% (96)

(N = 208) $X^2 = 12.40$ Df = 2 Probability = 0.002

APPENDIX G2 SATISFACTION WITH INVOLVEMENT IN WORK-ASSOCIATED TASKS DECISIONS AND SEX OF RESPONDENTS

		Sex of Respondents			
		Male	Female		TOTALS
			Married	Other	
Satisfaction with degree of decision involvement: beginning teacher responses	SATISFIED	58.4% (45)	42.5% (34)	33.3% (12)	47.2% (91)
	WANT MORE	41.6% (32)	57.5% (46)	66.7% (24)	52.8% (102)

(N = 193) $X^2 = 7.39$ Df = 2 Probability = 0.025

APPENDIX H

SUPERVISION CATEGORIES AND NOMINAL DATA ITEMS

APPENDIX H1 FORMAL CLASSROOM VISITATIONS AND YEARS AS A PRINCIPAL

Frequency of supervision experience: beginning teacher responses by schools (N = 70)		Years the principal has been a principal		
		5 or less	More than 5	TOTALS
	LOW	34.5% (10)	61.0% (25)	50.0% (35)
	HIGH	65.5% (19)	39.0% (16)	50.0% (35)

$X^2 = 4.77$ Df = 1 Probability = 0.029

APPENDIX H2 COLLEGIAL PROFESSIONALIZATION AND YEARS OF EXPERIENCE

Frequency of supervision experience: beginning teacher responses (N = 213)		Years of teaching experience		
		In 1st year	In 2nd year	TOTALS
	LOW	50.9% (58)	34.3% (34)	43.2% (92)
	HIGH	49.1% (56)	65.7% (65)	56.8% (121)

$X^2 = 5.90$ Df = 1 Probability = 0.015

APPENDIX H3 COLLEGIAL PROFESSIONALIZATION AND TEACHING LEVEL

		Present teaching level			
		Elementary Grades	Junior High School	Senior High School	TOTALS
Frequency supervision experience: beginning teacher responses (N = 212)	LOW	34.0% (36)	44.9% (31)	67.6% (25)	43.4% (92)
	HIGH	66.0% (70)	55.1% (38)	32.4% (12)	56.6% (120)

$X^2 = 12.71$ Df = 2 Probability = 0.002

APPENDIX H4 DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHING COMPETENCE BY EXAMPLE AND YEARS AS A PRINCIPAL

		Years the principal has been a principal		
		5 or less	More than 5	TOTALS
Frequency of supervision experience: beginning teacher responses by schools (N = 70)	LOW	51.7% (15)	75.6% (31)	65.7% (46)
	HIGH	48.3% (14)	24.4% (10)	34.3% (24)

$X^2 = 4.30$ Df = 1 Probability = 0.038

APPENDIX H5 DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHING COMPETENCE BY EXAMPLE AND YEARS OF PRINCIPALSHIP OF PRESENT SCHOOL

Frequency of supervision experience: beginning teacher responses by schools

(N = 70)

	Years as principal of present school		
	5 or less	More than 5	TOTALS
LOW	55.8% (24)	81.5% (22)	65.7% (46)
HIGH	44.2% (19)	18.5% (5)	34.3% (24)

$X^2 = 4.85$ Df = 1 Probability = 0.028

APPENDIX H6 DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHING COMPETENCE BY EXAMPLE AND TEACHER EXPECTATIONS

Frequency of supervision experience: beginning teacher responses

(N = 213)

	Teacher expectations for 5 years from now			
	To be a class teacher	Uncertain	Not to be a class teacher	TOTALS
LOW	62.2% (61)	66.7% (54)	85.3% (29)	67.6% (144)
HIGH	37.8% (37)	33.3% (27)	14.7% (5)	32.4% (69)

$X^2 = 6.18$ Df = 2 Probability = 0.046

APPENDIX I

SATISFACTION WITH FREQUENCY OF SUPERVISION EXPERIENCE AND NOMINAL DATA ITEMS

APPENDIX I1 SATISFACTION WITH FREQUENCY OF FACE TO-FACE DISCUSSION AND SIZE OF SCHOOL STAFF

Satisfaction with frequency of supervision: beginning teacher responses by schools (N = 211)		Numbers on school staff				
		10 or less	11-20	21-30	31 or more	TOTALS
	SATISFIED	71.4% (5)	73.3% (22)	95.5% (21)	100.0% (11)	84.3% (59)
	WANT MORE	28.6% (2)	26.7% (8)	4.5% (1)	0.0% (0)	15.7% (11)

$X^2 = 7.71$ Df = 3 Probability = 0.052
(Approaching significance)

APPENDIX I2 SATISFACTION WITH FREQUENCY OF FACE-TO-FACE DISCUSSION AND TRAINING INSTITUTION

Satisfaction with frequency of supervision: beginning teacher responses (N = 209)		Teacher training institution		
		University of Alberta	Other	TOTALS
	SATISFIED	80.0% (148)	62.5% (15)	78.0% (163)
	WANT MORE	20.0% (37)	37.5% (9)	22.0% (46)

$X^2 = 3.79$ Df = 1 Probability = 0.052
(Approaching significance)

APPENDIX I3 SATISFACTION WITH FREQUENCY OF PROMOTION OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND YEARS AS A PRINCIPAL

Satisfaction with frequency of supervision experience: beginning teacher responses by schools

(N = 70)

	Years the principal has been a principal		
	5 or less	More than 5	TOTALS
SATISFIED	79.3% (23)	56.1% (23)	65.7% (46)
WANT MORE	(20.7) (6)	43.9% (18)	34.3% (24)

$X^2 = 4.06$ Df = 1 Probability = 0.044

APPENDIX I4 SATISFACTION WITH FREQUENCY OF PROMOTION OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND YEARS OF PRINCIPALSHIP OF PRESENT SCHOOL

Satisfaction with frequency of supervision experience: beginning teacher responses by schools

(N = 70)

	Years as principal of present school		
	5 or less	More than 5	TOTALS
SATISFIED	79.1% (34)	44.4% (12)	65.7% (46)
WANT MORE	20.9% (9)	55.6% (15)	34.3 (24)

$X^2 = 8.83$ Df = 1 Probability = 0.003

APPENDIX I5 SATISFACTION WITH FREQUENCY OF COLLEGIAL PROFESSIONALIZATION AND ROUTE TAKEN FOR TEACHING QUALIFICATIONS

Satisfaction with frequency of supervision experience: beginning teacher responses by schools

(N = 185)

	Route taken for teaching qualifications		
	B.Ed.	P.D.A.D.	TOTALS
SATISFIED	65.1% (82)	81.4% (48)	70.3% (130)
WANT MORE	34.9% (44)	18.6% (11)	29.7% (55)

$\chi^2 = 5.10$ Df = 1 Probability = 0.024

APPENDIX I6 SATISFACTION WITH FREQUENCY OF DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHING COMPETENCE BY EXAMPLE AND TEACHING LEVEL

Satisfaction with frequency of supervision: beginning teacher responses (N = 202)

	Present teaching level			
	Elementary Grades	Junior High School	Senior High School	TOTALS
SATISFIED	48.0% (49)	34.4% (22)	61.1% (22)	46.0% (93)
WANT MORE	52.0% (53)	65.6% (42)	38.9% (14)	54.0% (109)

$\chi^2 = 6.96$ Df = 2 Probability = 0.031